

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT

PROGRAMMABLE
DATA COLLECTION PLATFORM
STUDY

Final Report

May 1976

UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE

**KNOXVILLE
TN 37916**

The University of Tennessee
Department of Electrical Engineering
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916-1

PROGRAMMABLE
DATA COLLECTION PLATFORM
STUDY

Final Report

May 1976

Contract No. NAS5-22495

Prepared for

National Aeronautics and Space Administration
Goddard Space Flight Center
Greenbelt, Maryland 20771

**Page
Intentionally
Left Blank**

2005
with the following
March 1991

PREFACE

This report represents the findings of the work completed under a nine-month study of programmable data collection platforms. The system has been implemented with a microcomputer, and the results show that programmable data collection platforms can carry out all the functions of hardwired data collection platforms with capacity left to perform a number of desirable computational functions.

CONTENTS

<u>Section</u>	<u>Page</u>
1 INTRODUCTION.	1-1
1.1 BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE	1-1
1.2 SUMMARY.	1-2
2 MICROCOMPUTER HARDWARE AND SOFTWARE	2-1
2.1 HARDWARE ARCHITECTURE OF THE MICROPROCESSOR.	2-4
2.1.1 Arithmetic/Logic Unit (ALU)	2-4
2.1.2 Registers	2-8
2.1.2.1 Program Counter Register	2-9
2.1.2.2 Stack and Stack Pointer.	2-10
2.1.2.3 Accumulator and General Purpose Registers.	2-11
2.1.2.4 Instruction Register	2-11
2.1.2.5 Address Registers.	2-12
2.1.3 Control Logic	2-12
2.2 MICROCOMPUTER SOFTWARE ASPECTS	2-19
2.2.1 Microcomputer Instruction Sets.	2-22
2.2.2 Microcomputer Programming	2-25
2.2.2.1 Programming Languages.	2-27
2.2.2.2 Utility Programs	2-29
2.2.2.3 Microprogramming	2-31
3 PDCP SYSTEM HARDWARE.	3-1
3.1 SENSOR CLASSIFICATION AND INTERFACING.	3-1
3.1.1 Sensor Classification	3-1
3.1.2 Sensor Interfacing.	3-9
3.1.2.1 Sensor Interface	3-11
3.1.2.2 Microprocessor Interface	3-11
3.2 DIGITAL CONTROL LOGIC AND MEMORY	3-12
3.3 TRANSMITTER, RECEIVER, AND ANTENNA	3-15
3.4 SUMMARY.	3-16

CONTENTS (Continued)

<u>Section</u>	<u>Page</u>
4 PDCP SYSTEM SOFTWARE.	4-1
4.1 PDCP SOFTWARE ORGANIZATION	4-1
4.2 PDCP SYSTEM TIMING	4-3
4.3 PDCP SOFTWARE DEVELOPMENT.	4-5
4.3.1 Applications-Oriented Software Development. .	4-5
4.3.2 Assembly Language and Microprogrammed Subroutines	4-7
4.4 PDCP PROGRAM EXAMPLES.	4-8
4.4.1 Data Input and Sensor Control	4-8
4.4.1.1 Frequency Measurement.	4-9
4.4.1.2 Autoranging.	4-13
4.4.1.3 Software Controlled Analog-to-Digital Conversion	4-17
4.4.2 Data Compaction and Preprocessing	4-19
4.4.2.1 General-Purpose Binary Math Package.	4-22
4.4.2.2 Determination of Minimum and Maximum Data Values.	4-27
4.4.2.3 Zero-Order Floating Aperture Predictor.	4-27
4.4.2.4 Data Average	4-40
4.4.2.5 Mean, Variance, and Standard Deviation	4-40
4.4.3 Data Formatting and Transmitter Control . . .	4-50
4.4.3.1 TWERLE Format Transmitter Subroutine	4-57
4.4.3.2 GOES Format Transmitter Routine. . .	4-68
4.4.3.3 TIROS-N Format Transmitter Routine.	4-68
4.4.3.4 Landsat Format Transmitter Subroutine	4-84
4.4.4 Special Computations.	4-84
4.4.4.1 The FFT Program.	4-95
4.4.4.2 The Bayes Classifier	4-103

CONTENTS (Continued)

<u>Section</u>	<u>Page</u>
5 PROGRAMMABLE DATA COLLECTION PLATFORM DEMONSTRATION SYSTEM.	5-1
5.1 UT PDCP DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM HARDWARE.	5-1
5.1.1 Basic Pro-Log System.	5-2
5.1.1.1 Central Processing Unit Card	5-5
5.1.1.2 Random-Access Memory Cards	5-5
5.1.1.3 Read-Only Memory Cards	5-6
5.1.1.4 Latched Parallel Output Card	5-6
5.1.1.5 Parallel Input Card.	5-7
5.1.2 Special Purpose Interface Cards	5-8
5.1.2.1 Dual Serial I/O Card	5-9
5.1.2.2 Analog Interface Card.	5-10
5.1.2.3 Cassette Analog Interface and Baud Rate Clock Card.	5-10
5.1.2.4 General-Purpose Utility Card	5-11
5.1.3 Miscellaneous Hardware Components of the UT PDCP Development System	5-11
5.2 UT PDCP DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM SOFTWARE PACKAGE.	5-13
6 FUTURE PDCP SYSTEMS	6-1
6.1 EVALUATION OF AVAILABLE MICROPROCESSORS.	6-1
6.2 TECHNOLOGY FORECAST.	6-14
 APPENDICES	
A BINARY MATH PACKAGE	A-1
B A NEW PRINCIPLE FOR FAST FOURIER TRANSFORMATION	B-1
C 8080A FAST FOURIER TRANSFORM PROGRAM.	C-1

ILLUSTRATIONS

<u>Figure</u>	<u>Page</u>
2.1(1) General Block Diagram of CPU.	2-5
2.1.1(1) Typical Arithmetic/Logic Unit	2-6
2.2(1) Coding Levels	2-20
2.2.1(1) Data Movement in the Microcomputer.	2-23
2.2.2(1) Typical Flow Chart Symbols.	2-26
3(1) DCP Hardware Subsystems	3-2
3.2(1) Microprocessor Based PDCP Control Subsystem Organization.	3-13
4.1(1) PDCP Software System Organization	4-2
4.4.1.1(1) Flow Chart for Frequency Sensor Input Subroutine.	4-12
4.4.1.2(1) Microprocessor-Controlled Variable-Gain Amplifier	4-14
4.4.1.2(2) Analog Data Acquisition System for a PDCP	4-17
4.4.1.2(3) Flow Chart for Variable Gain Amplifier Control Program	4-18
4.4.1.3(1) Flow Chart for Successive Approximation ADC Subroutine.	4-21
4.4.1.3(2) Simplified Schematic of the ADC Hardware.	4-21a
4.4.2.1(1) Flow Chart for Square Root Subroutine	4-26
4.4.2.3(1) Flow Chart for the Double Precision Zero-Order Floating-Aperture Predictor Subroutine.	4-35
4.4.2.3(2) Flow Chart for the Multiprecision Zero-Order Floating Aperture Predictor Subroutine.	4-39
4.4.2.4(1) Flow Chart for the Data Accumulation Subroutine	4-42
4.4.2.4(2) Flow Chart for the Data Averaging Subroutine.	4-44
4.4.2.5(1) Flow Chart for Data Preparation for Mean, Variance, and Standard Deviation Subroutine	4-51
4.4.2.5(2) Flow Chart for Mean, Variance, and Standard Deviation Subroutine.	4-52

ILLUSTRATIONS (Continued)

<u>Figure</u>		<u>Page</u>
4.4.3(1)	Bit Assignments for Transmitter Control Port XCNTR	4-54
4.4.3.1(1)	Simplified Flow Chart for Subroutine TWXMIT	4-64
4.4.3.1(2)	Detailed Flow Chart for the Data Transmission Block of Subroutine TWXMIT	4-65
4.4.3.2(1)	Flow Chart for GOES Transmitter Subroutine	4-76
4.4.3.2(2)	Flow Chart for Subroutine BIPHS	4-77
4.4.3.3(1)	Flow Chart for TIROS-N Transmitter Subroutine	4-83
4.4.3.4(1)	Flow Chart for the PDCP Convolutional Encoder Subroutine	4-90
4.4.4(1)	Seismic Record Preprocessing and Classification	4-96
4.4.4(2)	FFT Data Flow Chart	4-97
5.1(1)	Major Components of the UT PDCP Development System	5-3
5.1(2)	UT PDCP Microcomputer Development System Block Diagram	5-4

PROGRAMS

<u>Program</u>	<u>Page</u>
4.4.1.1(1) Frequency Sensor Input.	4-10
4.4.1.2(1) Variable Gain Amplifier Control	4-15
4.4.1.3(1) Analog-to-Digital Conversion	4-20
4.4.2.2(1) Minimum-Maximum Value Determination	4-29
4.4.2.3(1) Zero-Order Floating-Aperture Predictor	4-32
4.4.2.3(2) Multiprecision Zero-Order Floating-Aperture Predictor	4-36
4.4.2.4(1) Data Accumulation Subroutine	4-41
4.4.2.4(2) Data Averaging Subroutine	4-43
4.4.2.5(1) Data Preparation Subroutine for Mean, Variance and Standard Deviation	4-45
4.4.2.5(2) Mean, Variance and Standard Deviation	4-47
4.4.3.1(1) TWERLE Format Transmitter Subroutine	4-59
4.4.3.2(1) GOES Format Transmitter Subroutine	4-70
4.4.3.3(1) TIROS-N Format Transmitter Subroutine	4-78
4.4.3.4(1) PDCP Convolutional Encoder Subroutine	4-86
4.4.3.4(2) Landsat Format Transmitter Subroutine	4-91
A(1) Short Multiprecision Add	A-1
A(2) Short Multiprecision Subtract	A-2
A(3) Double-Precision Add With Memory	A-3
A(4) Double-Precision Subtract with Memory	A-4
A(5) Double-Precision Compare	A-5
A(6) Double-Precision Multiply	A-6
A(7) Double Precision Divide	A-8
A(8) Square Root	A-10

A(9)	Multibyte Binary Addition and Subtraction . . .	A-13
A(10)	Multibyte Compare	A-15
A(11)	Multibyte Memory-to-Memory Move	A-17
A(12)	General Purpose Exit Subroutine	A-18
C(1)	8080A Fast Fourier Transform	C-1

TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>Page</u>
3.1.1(1) Satellite Data Collection Disciplines	3-3
3.1.1(2) Sensor Measurement Parameters and Associated Disciplines	3-4
3.1.1(3) Typical Satellite Data Collection Sensors . .	3-10
4.4.2.1(1) General Purpose PDCP Binary Math Package . .	4-23
4.4.2.1(2) Binary Math Subroutine Execution Times . . .	4-28
4.4.3(1) Transmitter Control Signals	4-56
4.4.3(2) Transmission Rates for the Landsat, GOES, TWERLE, and TIROS-N Data Collection Systems .	4-57
4.4.3.1(1) TWERLE Data Transmission Sequence Specifications	4-58
4.4.3.1(2) Format of the TWERLE RAM Data Block	4-66
4.4.3.2(1) GOES Data Transmission Sequence Specifications	4-69
4.4.3.3(1) TIROS-N Data Transmission Sequence Specifications	4-82
4.4.3.4(1) Landsat Data Transmission Sequence Specifications	4-85
6.1(1) System Constraints	6-4
6.1(2) Application Constraints	6-5
6.1(3) Software Constraints	6-6

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

Data collection by satellite is a rather young branch of science which was first demonstrated in 1967 using the ATS-1 satellite. This first NASA demonstration was the Omega Position Location Equipment System (OPLE) which primarily determined that an accurate position fix could be obtained from platforms in remote locations. This system was followed by the Interrogation, Recording and Location System (IRLS) flown on the Nimbus-3 satellite in 1969. The IRLS was closely followed by the French Eole satellite which was solely devoted to the tasks of data collection and position location for remote platforms distributed around the globe.

One fact that stood out from these early experiments was that the user costs for platform and data reduction must be kept low if the satellite data collection concepts are to be utilized on a large-scale basis. A way to reduce costs was incorporated by the Landsat data collection system flown in 1972. The platform transmissions were random rather than ordered. This simplified the platforms by eliminating on-board receivers and reduced the costs substantially. In 1974 the GOES satellite carried a data collection system which again utilized an ordered system, but costs were kept low because of improvements in semiconductor technology.

In 1975 the Nimbus-6 satellite carried the Tropical Wind Energy-conversion and Reference Level Experiment (TWERLE) into orbit. The TWERLE utilized the low cost of the random transmission system combined with new low-cost integrated circuits to maintain a still lower platform cost.

In 1977 the TIROS-N satellite will be launched carrying a data collection system designed by France. The system will use the random transmission feature which will help to lower user costs and aid in making the system internationally acceptable.

A primary purpose of this study is to determine if the recent advances in semiconductor technology can be incorporated in the design of data collection platforms to further reduce their cost and, consequently, make their application more desirable to the user.

At the time of the instigation of this study, all data collection platforms used hardwired logic circuitry to implement the identification and formatting of the data collected by a platform. Hardwired circuitry was also used to control the sensors and the transmitter. In the last two years, a new semiconductor device which has the potential of drastically reducing hardware costs while increasing the capability of the data collection platform has appeared on the commercial market. The device is the microprocessor. The microprocessor is a computer central-processing unit (CPU) on a single integrated circuit chip. The equivalent of thousands of discrete electronic components are fabricated on a single microprocessor chip with unit costs projected to be in the ten-dollar range.

The goals of this study are to determine what present data collection functions can be accomplished by substituting a microprocessor for most of the hardwired logic, to uncover new tasks which would enhance the utility of data collection platforms by virtue of having a microprocessor available, and to determine if the programmable feature of the microprocessor will allow future platforms to be compatible with more than one satellite data collection system. To prove the concepts developed in achieving these goals, a model programmable data collection platform (PDCP) development system has been implemented. The details of the University of Tennessee (UT) PDCP development system are described in Section 5 of this report.

1.2 SUMMARY

This report describes the results of a study of the feasibility of incorporating microprocessors in data collection platforms (DCP's). An introduction to microcomputer hardware and software concepts is provided in Section 2. Thus, readers who are not familiar with the microprocessor

field are furnished necessary background information on the basic organization of a microcomputer and software development techniques.

Programmable data collection platform (PDCP) hardware design goals include minimizing power consumption, maintenance, weight, and cost while providing accurate and reliable operation. Section 3 discusses the influence of microprocessor technology on the design of PDCP hardware. A standard, modular PDCP design capable of meeting the design goals listed above is proposed. The microprocessor contributes to this design by minimizing PDCP control logic and simplifying sensor interfaces. Also, standard PDCP sensor and transmitter interfaces will promote further cost reductions.

Although the standard, modular PDCP design proposed in Section 3 is economically desirable, the PDCP must be sufficiently flexible to operate efficiently with a number of different sensors, data compaction techniques, and data transmission formats. The PDCP software described in Section 4 is the key to attaining these goals. Numerous examples of potential PDCP programs are presented to demonstrate that a microprocessor is capable of performing all tasks of current DCP random logic control units. Furthermore, the PDCP software system will contribute to reduced hardware costs by replacing random logic and complex sensor interfaces with inexpensive program memory. In addition, a PDCP can economically perform data compaction operations that are impractical for random logic implementation. This will allow users to obtain more information from each PDCP without exceeding transmission channel bandwidth limitations.

Section 4 also discusses the process of developing PDCP programs. A specific PDCP software organization designed to minimize software development costs is described. Traditional program development techniques are inadequate for PDCP software development by applications oriented users. A PDCP software development system which would allow applications oriented users to define the software structure of their individual PDCP's in familiar terms is recommended for a future study. The proposed editor/translator software development system retains the

efficiency of assembly language programming because users are allowed to create software systems from a library of subroutines written by experienced assembly language programmers.

An integral part of this study was the design and construction of the UT PDCP development system described in Section 5. This system is useful in the development, evaluation, and demonstration of potential PDCP programs. The UT PDCP provides all the capabilities of a PDCP control unit. Programs developed for use on the UT PDCP include sensor data input subroutines, data compaction subroutines, and data transmission subroutines. The UT PDCP is intended for use primarily as a program development and demonstration system. Therefore, the design of the system is not intended to represent the design of an actual PDCP. The system will serve as a machine through which NASA personnel can acquaint themselves with the details of PDCP software and PDCP software development.

A PDCP design should be based on a knowledge of currently available microprocessors and projected future microprocessors. Section 6 describes a weighting matrix technique for evaluating microprocessors and provides a microprocessor technology forecast covering the next five years. The weighting matrix provides a systematic procedure for generating PDCP application performance measures for the various microprocessors.

2. MICROCOMPUTER HARDWARE AND SOFTWARE

The control logic found in most current data collection platform designs is an example of the custom random logic approach to process control system design. Custom random logic combines individual logic elements (such as flip-flops, gates, counters, etc.) to perform a particular system control task. The primary tasks of the random logic of a DCP are to control the sensors, input sensor data, format the data, and control the DCP transmitter. CMOS logic is prevalent in current DCP designs due to the extremely low power requirements for CMOS circuits.

A major disadvantage of current hardwired DCP's is that they are based on customized designs which are intended to perform only specific tasks. In practice, applications for DCP's vary considerably due to the diversified requirements of the various users. As a result, the introduction of new DCP applications or a new data collection satellite can require the development of a new DCP design. This increases DCP costs due to both the increase in direct development cost and the increase in manufacturing cost resulting from the production of smaller quantities of each specific design.

What are the alternatives for a state-of-the-art, cost-effective DCP design? A close look at modern process control systems suggests an answer. Until the introduction of the microprocessor, state-of-the-art process control systems depended on custom built random logic designs or the dedicated minicomputer.

Custom built random logic can be cost effective if a large number of identical systems are required where the initial high design costs can be effectively shared by a large number of users. This approach certainly has merit in the DCP field, but the question still remains as to whether a more versatile and perhaps more cost effective approach exists with modern technology. Also, a DCP user requiring only a small number of platforms must pay an extremely high price for a new design unless a present design can satisfy his requirements.

The dedicated minicomputer approach would provide versatility in a DCP design as modification of the DCP tasks could be implemented in software. Unfortunately, the minicomputer is physically too large and heavy to be practical in a DCP design. Also, power requirements for the minicomputer cannot be met by the typical DCP power supply.

The microprocessor is causing a revolution in the process control field [1-4].* A microprocessorized DCP would be programmable like the minicomputer, yet cost, size, weight, and power requirements would be greatly reduced. Produced in quantity, a microprocessorized process control system provides reduced hardware costs over an equivalent custom random-logic process-control system. This is due mainly to a reduction in the number of components required [1-3, 5-7].

A microprocessor-based DCP could not only provide reduced hardware costs, but later modification of the DCP task could be achieved at a significantly lower cost compared to a custom random-logic design. The cost of redesigning a custom random logic system could well exceed the initial design cost. The microprocessor-based DCP would probably require only a software revision. Hardware cost would be limited to replacement or reprogramming of one or more read-only memories (ROM's). Software costs should in general be low compared to high redesign and hardware costs for a custom random logic-system.

Besides providing great flexibility [3, 4] in altering the task performed by the DCP, a microprocessor-based design offers the added advantage of providing data processing capability at a small additional cost. Providing data processing capability would require adding the necessary software to perform the additional task. Again, hardware cost would be minimal requiring only the addition of one or more ROM's. Software cost could be spread out among the large number of DCP users. Field programmable ROM's would be used in prototype models, and cost effective mask-programmed ROM's would be used in production DCP's to minimize hardware costs. Further hardware aspects of the proposed programmable DCP (PDCP) are discussed later in this report (Section 3.2).

*References are located at the end of each chapter.

To fully appreciate the potential capabilities and advantages of a microprocessor based DCP, one must be familiar with the basic concepts of a general computer system and the specific hardware and software characteristics of a microprocessor. Therefore, the remainder of this section is devoted to a discussion of the basic characteristics of a microcomputer.

The definition of a microcomputer differs from author to author; however, a suitable definition for the purpose of this study is that a microcomputer is a computer whose major component, the central processing unit, is a single microprocessor chip or microprocessor chip set. To complete the definition, the term computer must be defined.

Briefly, a computer is a device or machine which performs a programmed sequence of operations on data. A computer is comprised of three major components:

- Central Processing Unit (CPU)
- Memory
- Input/Output (I/O)

Instructions and data are placed in the computer memory. The central processing unit (CPU) fetches instructions from the memory and executes the instructions. The instructions are programmed to cause the CPU to process data. The set of instructions executed by the CPU is called a program. Data may be initially in memory, processed by the CPU, and results returned to memory. Input/output ports of the computer provide a means of entering and retrieving the data from the CPU and/or the memory. Note that data can be control words or signals as well as numerical quantities. Thus, the computer is capable of performing the following tasks:

1. Input data and control signals
2. Process and format data
3. Output control signals and data

In particular, a computer could input DCP sensor data; process the data (convolutional encoding, Manchester encoding, data compaction, etc.); provide and recognize DCP control signals; and format the platform data to emulate any of the typical DCP data formats.

Sections 2.1 and 2.2 discuss the hardware architecture and software aspects of the typical microprocessor. These sections reveal the processing and control capabilities of the microcomputer and provide insight into the question as to whether the microcomputer is indeed capable of performing the task of a typical DCP.

2.1 HARDWARE ARCHITECTURE OF THE MICROPROCESSOR

There are three basic components of the typical central processing unit (CPU) as depicted in Figure 2.1(1).

- Arithmetic/Logic Unit (ALU)
- Registers (Temporary Storage)
- Control Logic

The arithmetic/logic unit (ALU), as the name implies, performs the arithmetic and logical operations on the data processed by the CPU. Registers provide temporary internal storage for operands and results as well as address pointers for input/output and memory. The control logic provides the various signals for initiating processor functions and controlling external circuits. Recognition of external control signals is also a function of the control logic. The next three subsections explain in detail the functions of the ALU, registers, and control logic.

2.1.1 Arithmetic/Logic Unit (ALU)

All microprocessors have an arithmetic/logic unit (ALU) which performs the arithmetic and logical operations. As shown in Figure 2.1.1(1), the ALU generally has two multibit inputs.

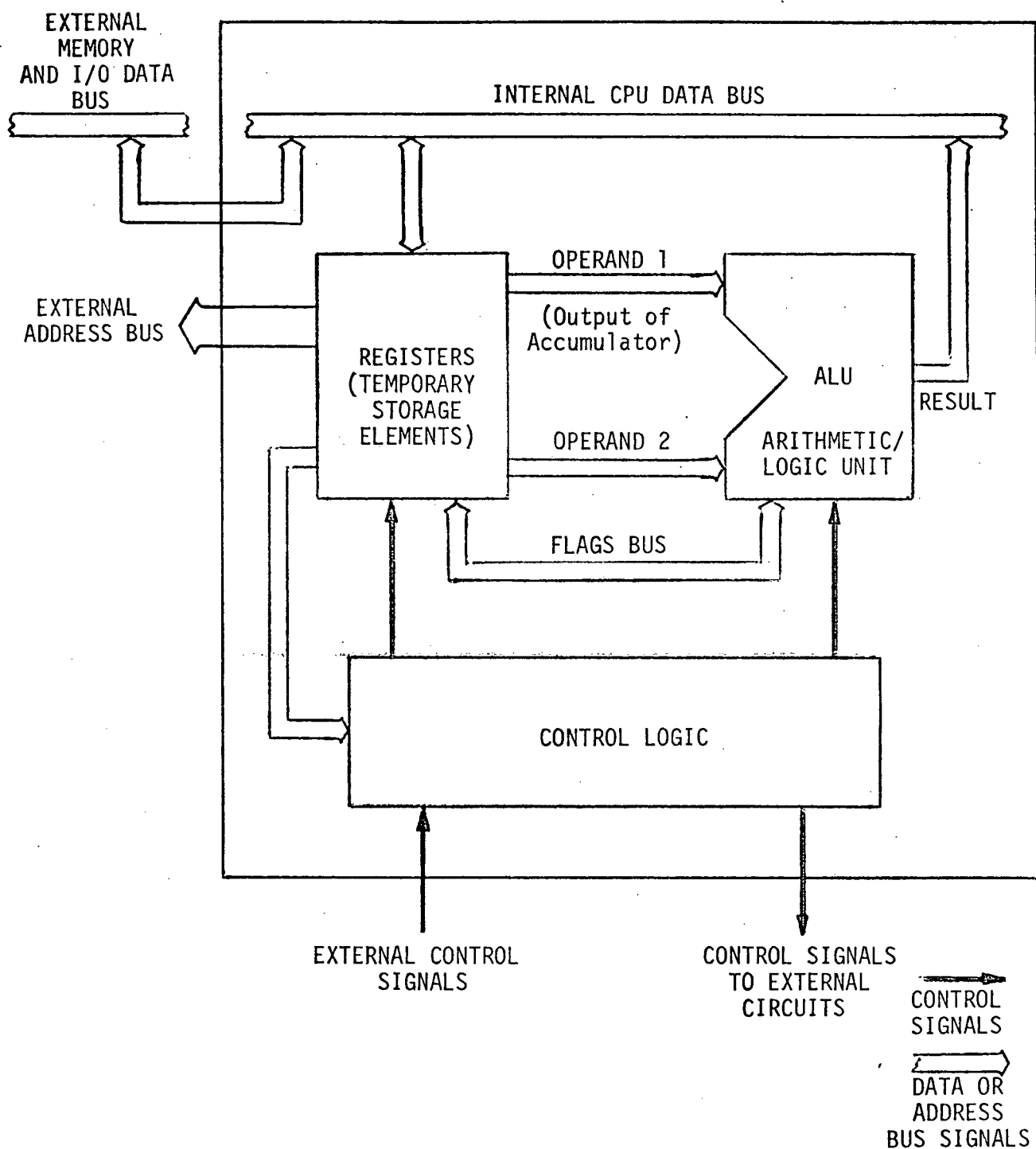


Figure 2.1(1) General Block Diagram of CPU.

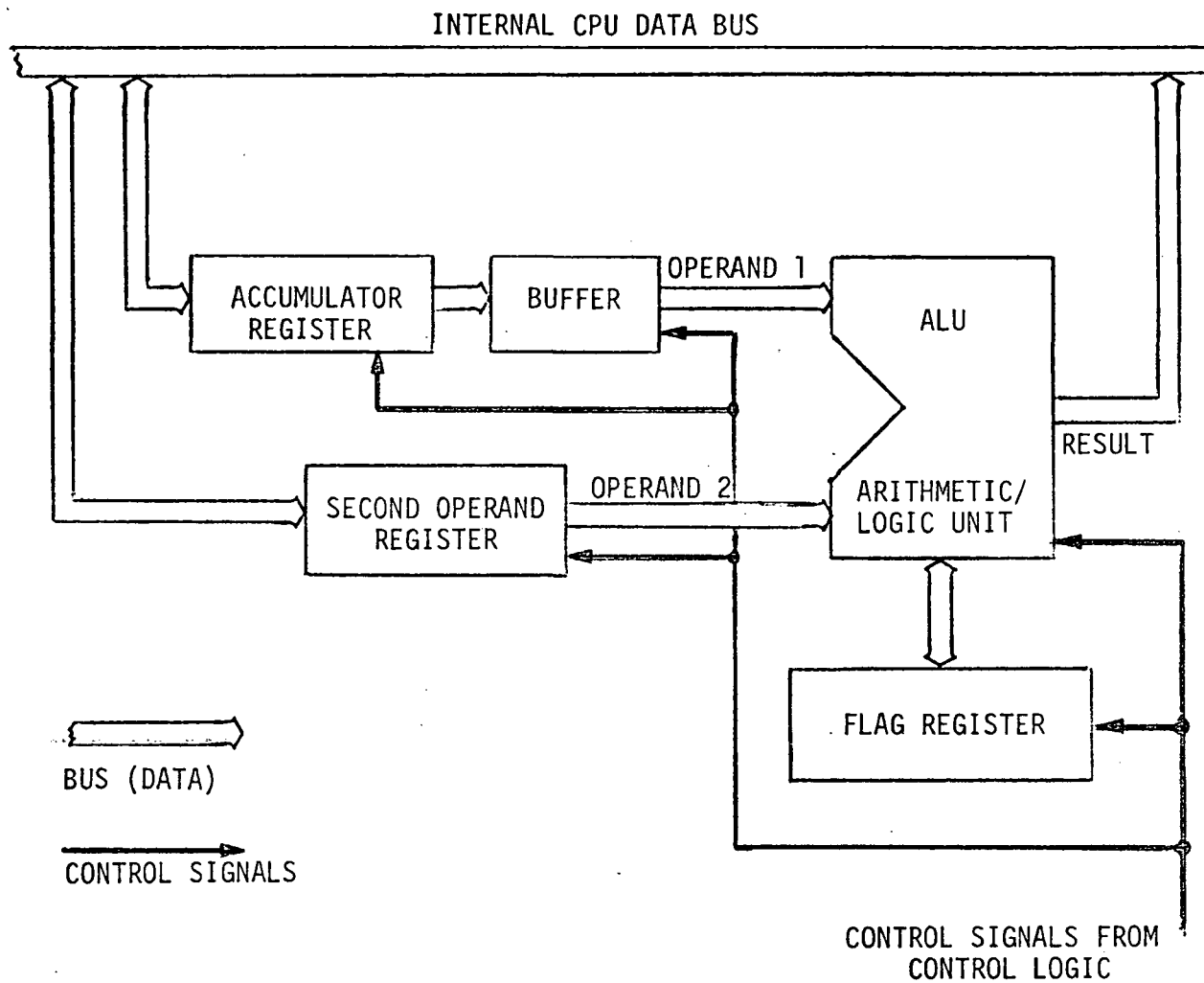


Figure 2.1.1(1) Typical Arithmetic/Logic Unit.

One input (Operand No. 1) to the ALU is usually the output of an accumulator buffer. The buffer stores the accumulator data throughout the ALU operation. Typically, all arithmetic operations are performed between the accumulator register and a temporary register, which in some CPU's may be a second accumulator. Input to the accumulator or second operand register may be memory data, an input port, or some other hardware register. The result of the operation is placed on the internal CPU data bus. Often the result is returned to the accumulator. In this case, the accumulator requires a buffer so that the original data in the accumulator can be stored and applied to the ALU while the arithmetic or logical operation is being performed. Thus, the result can be returned to the accumulator even though the result is a function of the accumulator's original contents.

All ALU's perform the basic arithmetic function of binary addition. Additional arithmetic/logical operations performed by most CPU's include binary subtraction, logical AND, logical OR, logical exclusive OR, complement and register bit shift. Although not yet common functions, some of the more recent microprocessors such as Texas Instruments' TMS 9900 also include binary multiplication and division.

A very simple ALU may only provide binary addition. In this case, binary subtraction, multiplication, and division may be performed only after the programmer has written software routines to perform these functions. Routines can be written to perform binary subtraction, multiplication, and division with only the basic binary addition instruction in conjunction with the ALU flags. Algorithms for performing various binary operations in terms of simpler binary operations can be written as needed for a given processing task. For example, multiplication by two is equivalent to a single bit shift left, and division by two is equivalent to a single bit shift right.

Although even the simplest ALU provides binary addition, the number of additional binary operations provided varies widely from microprocessor to microprocessor. One of the fundamental problems in selecting a microprocessor for a particular task is deciding how much power in performing arithmetic/logical operations is sufficient.

Referring again to Figure 2.1.1(1), notice that the data path between the flag register is bidirectional. The operations performed by the ALU produce an output which may be zero, have a carry or borrow, have even or odd parity, or have positive or negative sign. These auxiliary outputs are called flags and are stored in the flag register for subsequent ALU operations. The flag register is thus a source and destination register.

Besides providing additional data to the ALU, the flag register often provides information for the control logic. Program branching may be conditional on the result of an ALU operation (value of a flag). For example, the programmer may wish to call an overflow subroutine if an ALU operation produces a carry. By placing a call on carry instruction after the ALU operation instruction, the overflow subroutine would be called only if the result of the operation produced a carry. References 10-14 discuss the use of flags and conditional branching in more detail.

2.1.2 Registers

The hardware registers internal to the CPU provide temporary storage locations for data, instructions, and address pointers. The number of bits per register is usually an integer multiple of the characteristic word length of the CPU. All computers have a characteristic word length. The characteristic word length is generally determined by the size of the internal storage elements (registers) and the interconnecting buses. As an example, a CPU that has mostly eight-bit registers and eight-bit buses that transfer information between the registers is said to have an eight-bit word length. Some confusion results when the address bus is other than the characteristic word length.

Perhaps a better indication of the word length of the CPU is the maximum number of data bits stored at a single memory address. Most hardware registers of the CPU are usually equal in size to the memory word length. An example is the 8080A used in the UT PDCP development system. The word length of memory is eight bits. The internal general purpose registers in the 8080A CPU are eight bits. Certain address registers such as the program counter and stack pointer are

comprised of 2 eight-bit registers. Registers, then, are simply temporary storage elements in the CPU. There are many types of special purpose registers which are summarized below.

2.1.2.1 Program Counter Register - All CPU's contain a program counter register. This register stores the memory address from which instructions are fetched from memory. Each time an instruction is fetched, the program counter is normally incremented by one to point to the memory location where the next instruction is located. Multibyte instructions may require multiple incrementing of the program counter in order to read the entire instruction (usually accomplished automatically). Some instructions contain immediate data stored sequentially following the instruction. In this case, the program counter is incremented one or more times so that the entire instruction is read in. After the last byte of the instruction is read, the program counter register is incremented again to point to the first byte of the next instruction.

Most CPU's provide at least two means to alter an otherwise sequential fetching of instructions. The jump-type instruction alters the program counter register contents according to a particular addressing mode specified by the jump instruction (see References 10-14). The subroutine call instruction allows program flow to another area of memory, and upon completion of the "called subroutine" the program returns to the instruction following the call. Execution of a subroutine call requires a stack to store the address of the instruction following the call instruction. When a call instruction is encountered, the address of the instruction following the call instruction is stored in the stack. Then the program counter is loaded with the address of the subroutine and the subroutine is executed. Upon completion of the subroutine, the address previously stored in the stack is returned from the stack and placed into the program counter. This action is initiated by placing a return from subroutine instruction as the last executed instruction at the end of the subroutine. This causes program execution to return to the calling program.

2.1.2.2 Stack and Stack Pointer - A CPU that provides subroutine calls must have a stack. A stack is a last in, first out (LIFO) buffer storage element; that is, the last value stored is the first to be read out.

Two types of stacks are found in microprocessors. The hardware stack (e.g., the Intel 8008) is a LIFO buffer storage element internal to the microprocessor integrated circuit. The software stack (e.g., Intel 8080A or Motorola 6800) is a LIFO buffer storage element implemented in the computer random-access memory or some memory external to the CPU integrated circuit.

An advantage of the software stack is that stack size is limited only by the amount of external memory the programmer dedicates to the stack function. In the case of a software stack, an internal (to the CPU) address register called a stack pointer register is used to address the memory area which is software programmable to serve as the CPU stack. The stack pointer register is generally the same size as the program counter register.

Besides storing addresses for subroutine calls, the stack may also serve as a data storage element. For example, in the 8080A, there are "push" and "pop" instructions which provide for storage of the contents of the various hardware registers. An instruction set possessing this capability has a significant advantage over the ones that do not. Suppose an external interrupt request occurs while the CPU is executing a main program. Further, suppose the interrupt service routine may change CPU register contents depending on which device issues the interrupt. Without stack storage of processor status (contents of CPU registers), the interrupt may have to be delayed until a point is reached in the main program where loss of CPU status is not critical. With stack storage of CPU status, the interrupt can be processed almost immediately with processor status "pushed" onto the stack at the beginning of the interrupt service subroutine and CPU status restored by "popping" the stack at the end of the interrupt subroutine.

2.1.2.3 Accumulator and General Purpose Registers - One of the operands used in ALU operations is generally the current contents of the accumulator. The number of bits in the accumulator register is a good indication of the characteristic word length of the CPU.

During an ALU operation, the accumulator register's contents and some other register's contents are applied to the inputs of the ALU [see Figure 2.1.1(1)]. The result of the operation is usually returned to the accumulator via the internal data bus of the CPU.

In contrast to other operand registers which may be input to the ALU, the accumulator contents are, in general, altered following the completion of an ALU operation. The accumulator is a source for operands and, in most cases, also a destination for results. The buffer register following the accumulator provides the temporary storage of the accumulator register data while the ALU operation takes place. This allows the result of the ALU operation to be returned to the accumulator.

Other hardware registers which serve only as a source or destination register (but not both simultaneously) are called general purpose registers. Some microprocessor architectures do not provide general purpose registers, thus requiring all ALU or other CPU operations to be performed between accumulators, memory, and I/O only. Microprocessors lacking general purpose registers often provide more flexible memory addressing modes to allow single or double byte instructions to execute ALU or other operations with different memory locations. In other words, external memory is used for general purpose registers.

2.1.2.4 Instruction Register - The instruction register is used for temporary storage of the instruction fetched from memory. At the beginning of the instruction cycle (see Section 2.1.3), the instruction is fetched from memory and loaded into the instruction register. The word length of the instruction register is thus equal to the word length of memory.

Corresponding to each particular operation the CPU must perform is a unique code called the instruction or operation code. For an n-bit

machine, there are 2^n unique instruction codes that could be used. Thus, an eight-bit machine allows for up to 2^8 (256) unique instruction codes. The codes are stored sequentially in memory and are fetched one by one into the instruction register where they are stored during decoding and execution of the instruction.

2.1.2.5 Address Registers - The stack pointer and program counter are examples of special function address registers. Some CPU's have other address registers which provide absolute memory pointers, relative memory pointers, input port address pointers, and output port address pointers.

In some CPU's, a general purpose address register may be used for many functions. For example, the 8080A has two general purpose registers (H and L) which are absolute memory address pointers; yet, they may also be used for data storage, stack pointer storage, and even double precision shift left and add.

Memory reference instructions require an address register to hold the address of the memory location to be referenced by the instruction. Sometimes this address register is loaded with an address fetched by memory as part of a multibyte instruction. Some CPU's such as the Motorola 6800 provide an address index register which is used as an indexed memory pointer. Data can be stored or retrieved from the address specified by the index register plus or minus a fixed amount (relative addressing).

2.1.3 Control Logic

The primary and most complex component of the CPU is the control logic. The control logic provides the sequential signals that perform the various processing tasks.

A necessary input signal to the control logic of all CPU's is a master clock. Some microprocessors such as the MOS Technology MCS 6502 have an internal clock while others require an external clock. The popular Intel 8080A used in the UT PDCP requires an external two-phase clock.

Other inputs to the control logic include decoded instructions from the instruction register, flags generated by previous ALU operations, and external control signals such as interrupt, wait, or DMA (direct memory access) requests. The function of the control logic is to take all these input signals and output the necessary signals in the proper sequence so as to execute the appropriate processing task.

The CPU operates in a cycle. That is, the processor fetches an instruction, decodes the instruction, executes the instruction, fetches the next instruction, etc. The master clock provides a reference timing signal to synchronize the events in a processor cycle.

An instruction fetch, instruction decode, and instruction execution is often called an instruction cycle. The instruction cycle generally requires one or more subcycles called machine cycles. Each distinct function performed during a machine cycle is called a state. A state generally requires one or more periods of the master clock. The first state of every instruction cycle is an instruction fetch. During the instruction fetch state, the program counter provides the address of the next instruction, and a memory read subcycle places the instruction fetched from memory on the internal data bus. From the data bus, the instruction is loaded into the instruction register. The instruction remains in the instruction register throughout the instruction cycle.

Following the decoding of the instruction, cycle status information is provided by the control logic. Cycle status signals indicate the type of machine cycle that is to be performed. For example, the instruction cycle may be input/output (I/O), memory referencing (memory read or write), internal CPU processing, or a combination of these.

Input/output cycles may not be provided by some microprocessors. This class of microprocessors relies on a technique called memory-mapped I/O. That is, input and output ports are treated like any other memory location. Data sent to or from a memory-mapped I/O port appears to the CPU to have been written into or read from memory. All microprocessors have the capability of memory-mapped I/O. Those microprocessors providing I/O cycles offer a second method to input and output data to and from

the CPU. The I/O cycle is flagged by I/O status bits following the decoding of an I/O instruction. The I/O flag bits combined with the I/O port address provide the signals to select the external I/O ports and whether the operation is to be an input or output. Memory mapped I/O uses memory read or write flag bits combined with reserved memory addresses to operate the external I/O ports.

Memory reference subcycles are either memory read (data is returned from memory) or memory write (data is stored in memory). Several machine states are usually required to execute a memory reference subcycle. For example, in a memory read subcycle status information is first provided by the control logic, indicating a memory read cycle is to be executed. Following status information, the memory address is sent to the external address bus. At this point in the subcycle, depending on the capabilities of the microprocessor, the memory read signal is issued or delayed if necessary to allow for minimum memory access time. Finally, data is returned from memory on the external data bus and routed to the appropriate destination register within the CPU.

For a memory write subcycle, the sequential operation is reversed slightly compared to the memory read subcycle. In this case, the first and second steps are similar; that is, status information is sent out by the control logic indicating a memory write subcycle is to be performed. Then, the memory address is placed on the external memory address bus. The third step differs in that data (instead of a control signal) is sent out by the CPU to the external memory data bus. Finally, the memory write signal is sent out by the control logic. Again, some microprocessors provide a means to delay the memory write signal to allow for minimum memory access time.

Microprocessors providing delay for slow memory or I/O have what is called a ready control signal input and a special machine state called a wait state. As long as the ready control signal input is true, CPU operation takes place at full machine speed set by the CPU master clock. Making the ready input false temporarily freezes CPU operation while retaining all CPU status. Usually, the ready input is checked just prior

to the memory or I/O, read or write control signal. Thus, address and data are held constant while in the wait state. If memory or I/O is too slow when the CPU operates at full speed, a wait-cycle generator can be used to place the CPU in the wait state for a minimum period of time required for memory or I/O access. Memory or I/O that is fast enough to operate with the CPU at full machine speed is said to be capable of operating synchronously with the CPU. Memory or I/O which is not fast enough and requires the CPU to synchronize with the external memory or I/O cycle is called asynchronous memory or I/O. Assuming the microprocessor has a ready signal input, slow memory requires an external wait-cycle generator to delay the appropriate read or write control signal.

The class of microprocessors that do not provide a wait state require additional hardware to operate with asynchronous memory or I/O. First, a circuit is needed to recognize the memory or I/O cycle. The problem arises at this point as the only alternative to suspend CPU operation, yet retain data on the address and data buses, is to provide external address and data storage and place the CPU in DMA if indeed DMA is provided. A possible second alternative is to stop the CPU master clock. Stopping the clock, however, is usually not a solution since many processors are dynamic and internal status requires clock refresh cycles. In practice, the clock pulse is stretched just long enough to allow the memory or I/O access. The hardware to provide this operation is considerably more involved than a wait-cycle generator circuit.

Using slow memory or I/O with a microprocessor may be possible without any external wait-cycle generation circuitry. If the application does not require the microprocessor to be run faster than the memory or I/O access times, the CPU clock frequency can be reduced to meet memory or I/O access times. This solution is applicable only if the minimum CPU clock frequency requirement is met. For example, the Pro-Log MPS system used in the UT PDCP (see Section 5.1) uses a $1.66\overline{66}$ μsec state time which allows the use of slow ROM without need for a wait-cycle generator.

Internal processing subcycles generally require the least amount of time (fewest number of states) to execute. Typical internal processing cycles are register-to-register move, arithmetic operations between registers, and increment a register's contents. Since the internal operations involve only internal storage elements, no time is required for access of external I/O or memory. The minimum cycle time specified for a particular machine is usually the minimum time in which some simple internal CPU operation can be performed. Minimum cycle time for a CPU is not necessarily a good criteria for evaluation of a particular microprocessor. Although the minimum cycle time of two microprocessors may be the same, one may perform a larger function than the other during the minimum cycle time.

As presented earlier, some instruction cycles may be a combination of basic I/O, memory reference, or internal CPU operation subcycles. For example, one instruction may involve reading data from memory and adding the data to the internal accumulator register. Usually two machine subcycles are required to perform an add memory to accumulator type instruction. The first machine subcycle would fetch the add memory instruction, decode the instruction, send out the memory address of the data to be added, and fetch the data to an internal temporary storage register. Several machine states would be required to perform this part of the instruction. The second machine subcycle would be an internal CPU operation subcycle which would be to input the accumulator and the temporary storage register contents to the ALU; direct the ALU to add the operands; and finally, place the result in a destination register (usually the accumulator). Many combinations of machine subcycles can be generated to perform various instruction cycles. The programming of machine subcycles comes under the topic of microprogramming which is discussed in Section 2.2.2.3.

Interrupt and hold control signal inputs are provided by most microprocessors. An interrupt, as the name implies, allows temporary interruption of main program processing to allow for execution of some subroutine. The principle advantage of interrupt capability is evident when using a peripheral much slower than the CPU. Suppose output to a

slow peripheral is required. Without interrupt provision, the processor must wait for the slow output device. With interrupt capability, the processor can be continuously processing, and when the slow output device is ready to take data, an interrupt request is sent to the CPU. The output routine to service the interrupt is executed, and the processor returns to the main processing task. The CPU need never wait for a slow peripheral.

The hold signal input provides just the opposite speed difference capability. Suppose an external peripheral is capable of outputting or inputting data faster than the CPU can process or generate data. If the processor provides a hold cycle, data may be passed between memory and the external device at a rate equal to the access time of the memory plus the time required for the CPU to recognize a hold request. When the control logic recognizes a hold request, the address and data buses are placed in the tri-state mode (floating), and a flag is generated by the control logic to indicate to the external circuitry that the address and data buses are now available for use by the external device that requested the CPU hold cycle. The external device may then address memory directly and perform a memory read or write cycle independent of the CPU. This operation is called direct memory access or simply DMA.

In PDCP applications, the data rate between CPU and sensors, or CPU and the platform transmitter, is generally slow compared to the processing speed of the microprocessor. Therefore, in PDCP applications, the DMA or hold capability will probably not be required.

The only remaining topic of the hardware architecture of the microprocessor that must be considered is the problem of system start-up. All microprocessors have the capability to load the program counter with some particular address upon the application of an external start-up signal. This is equivalent to initiation of a program since the program counter is loaded with the starting address of the program. Perhaps the best way to discuss hardware start-up is through examples.

The 8080A microprocessor provides three techniques for initiating a program. The most fundamental of these is application of an external reset signal to the reset control signal input of the 8080A chip. The control logic recognizes a reset request and places zero in the program counter. All other CPU status is unchanged. Thus, a vectored start-up to absolute address zero is performed. The problem with this method is that either location zero must be the starting point of the start-up program or the location must be preloaded with a jump instruction to the desired location. If location zero is ROM, then on power-up, the system may be started immediately with only a reset pushbutton required. If location zero is volatile RAM, location zero must be preloaded. A further complication results if all memory is volatile; in this case, a short boot-strap loader program must be toggled in by hand, and system start-up would include jumping to the boot-strap loader program which loads the system program(s). Usually, the simple boot-strap loader is used to load a more complicated loader with some sort of error checking. The more complicated loader then loads the system program(s) and passes control to the system program(s) at the conclusion of the loading routine. One microprocessor, the RCA CPD 1802 provides a hardware boot-strap. The CPD 1802 provides a special DMA cycle which permits sequential memory loading starting at location zero.

The second and third methods of starting the 8080A series microprocessors involve the interrupt capabilities of the device. There are eight single-bit restart instructions which cause an unconditional call to eight particular locations in memory (locations 0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, and 70 octal). That is, the present value of the program counter is saved in the stack, and the program counter is loaded with one of the eight appropriate restart locations. All other CPU status is unaffected. The restart 0 (restart to location 0) is similar to a reset, only additional hardware is required to jam the interrupt restart instruction onto the data bus. Also, the stack is affected by the restart instruction. The original 8080 provides only the reset and restart interrupt methods of system start-up. The newer 8080A series of microprocessors permit a three-byte instruction interrupt. That is, a three-byte instruction may be jammed onto the data bus during the interrupt. This permits unlimited

vectoring of the program counter since a call or jump instruction can specify a branch to any of the 2^{16} (65,536) possible memory locations. Of course, additional hardware is required to interrupt with three bytes since three bytes must be presented sequentially to the CPU data bus instead of only one.

Most microprocessors provide some sort of reset input that vectors the program counter to a particular location although the location is not always zero. The Motorola 6800 provides an interesting start-up technique which differs from the three methods just described. The desired program starting address is preloaded in the top two locations of memory. The reset signal initiates a special machine cycle which loads the program counter with the address stored in the top two memory locations. The resulting operation is equivalent to an unconditional jump to the memory location specified by the contents of the top two memory locations. Again, the top memory locations must be either non-volatile or pre-programmed.

2.2 MICROCOMPUTER SOFTWARE ASPECTS

A microcomputer must be programmed in order to perform a process control task. In the case of a microprocessorized DCP, the DCP system algorithms must be converted into a set of instructions (the microcomputer program) that can be directly loaded into the system memory. The process of converting system algorithms into machine executable instructions is often called coding.

As depicted in Figure 2.2(1), there are many levels of microcomputer coding. At the top of the scale are compilers and interpreters such as FORTRAN, PL/1, and BASIC. These high-level languages are machine independent in that a program written in any high-level language can be executed on any machine which supports that particular high-level language. For example, one could write a FORTRAN program to run on a DEC PDP-11/45 and also execute the program on an Intel 8080A microcomputer with little or no change in the original FORTRAN source program. Of course the original program would require recompiling using an 8080A FORTRAN compiler.

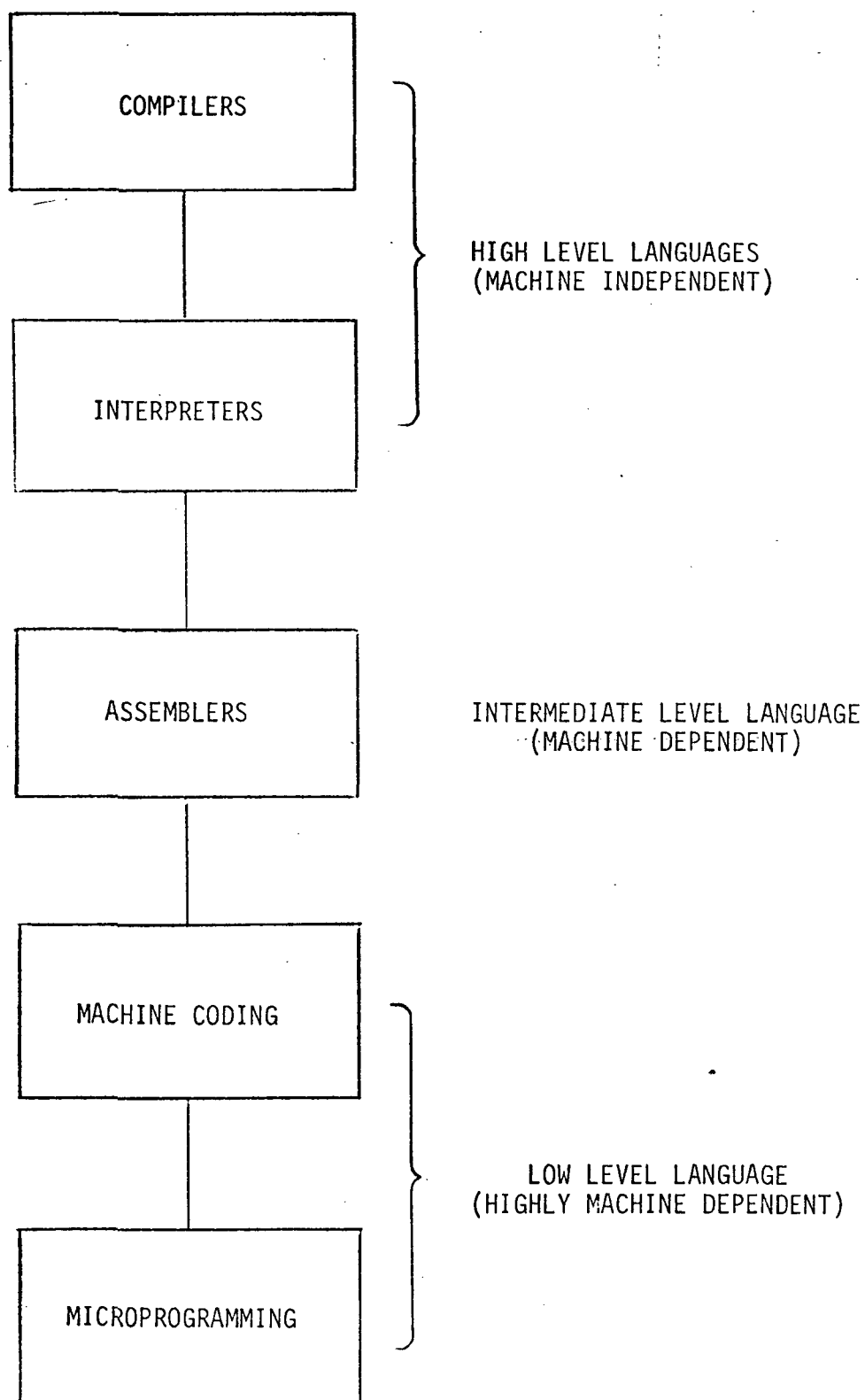


Figure 2.2(1) Coding Levels.

Intermediate-level programming is a more complex process than high-level programming. An assembly language programmer must have a thorough knowledge of the particular microprocessor's instruction set and a complete understanding of the particular microcomputer's hardware architecture. Assembly language programming is called machine dependent programming since instruction sets vary greatly from one microprocessor to another.

At the bottom of the coding scale is low-level programming. Machine language programming is extremely time consuming and should generally be avoided. Machine language programming is the process of hand loading the machine binary digits representing the various instructions the programmer wishes the CPU to perform. The binary digits are literally "toggled in" from a switch register or typed in as numbers from a keyboard. This process requires considerable time and effort from the programmer. Machine coding should not be required for PDCP applications since assembly language programs are available for most current microprocessors. The UT PDCP system described in Section 4 provides machine level coding capabilities as well as simplified symbolic assembly language programming.

The most basic level of microcomputer coding is a highly machine dependent technique called microprogramming. Microprogramming is sometimes referred to as the bridge between hardware and software [8]. This is because a microprogram consists of the control words used to decode machine instructions (software) into machine operations (hardware). The microprogram resides in the control storage element of the CPU. The control storage device is either a read only memory (ROM) or programmable logic array (PLA). Some microprocessor manufacturers allow the user to specify the microprogram. Since the microprogram defines the instruction set of the microprocessor, this allows the user to develop the optimal software structure for a particular application.

In addition to programming languages, the microcomputer programmer requires several utility programs to complete the programming task. A text editor program is useful in preparing the source code of a program.

Source code is the name given to the human readable program. Source code is compiled or assembled into equivalent machine executable object code. Another required utility program is a loader which is used to load the object code output of a compiler, interpreter or assembler program directly into the microcomputer memory. Finally, debugging and simulator programs aid in testing the object program. The remainder of this section provides a more detailed description of the software aspects of the microcomputer.

2.2.1 Microcomputer Instruction Sets

A microcomputer instruction provides the binary information required by the control logic of the CPU to perform a particular processing task. According to Weiss [9], microprocessor instructions can be conveniently grouped into four basic categories:

1. Data Movement
2. Data Manipulation
3. Decision and Control
4. Input/Output

Data movement instructions control the movement of data from register-to-register, register-to-memory, memory-to-register, and memory-to-memory. Figure 2.2.1(1) graphically illustrates possible sources and destinations for data movement. Note that data flow to and from input/output ports is also depicted in Figure 2.2.1(1). Input/output data movement is a special case of the general class of data movement instructions.

Data manipulation instructions provide arithmetic and logical operations on data. Arithmetic instructions include add, subtract, multiply, divide, and increment/decrement. Typical logical operations are logical AND, OR, exclusive OR, complement, compare, and rotate/shift. All microprocessor instruction sets provide the basic binary add instruction. If other data manipulation instructions are required but are not included in the instruction set, the needed instructions can usually be implemented with a subroutine.

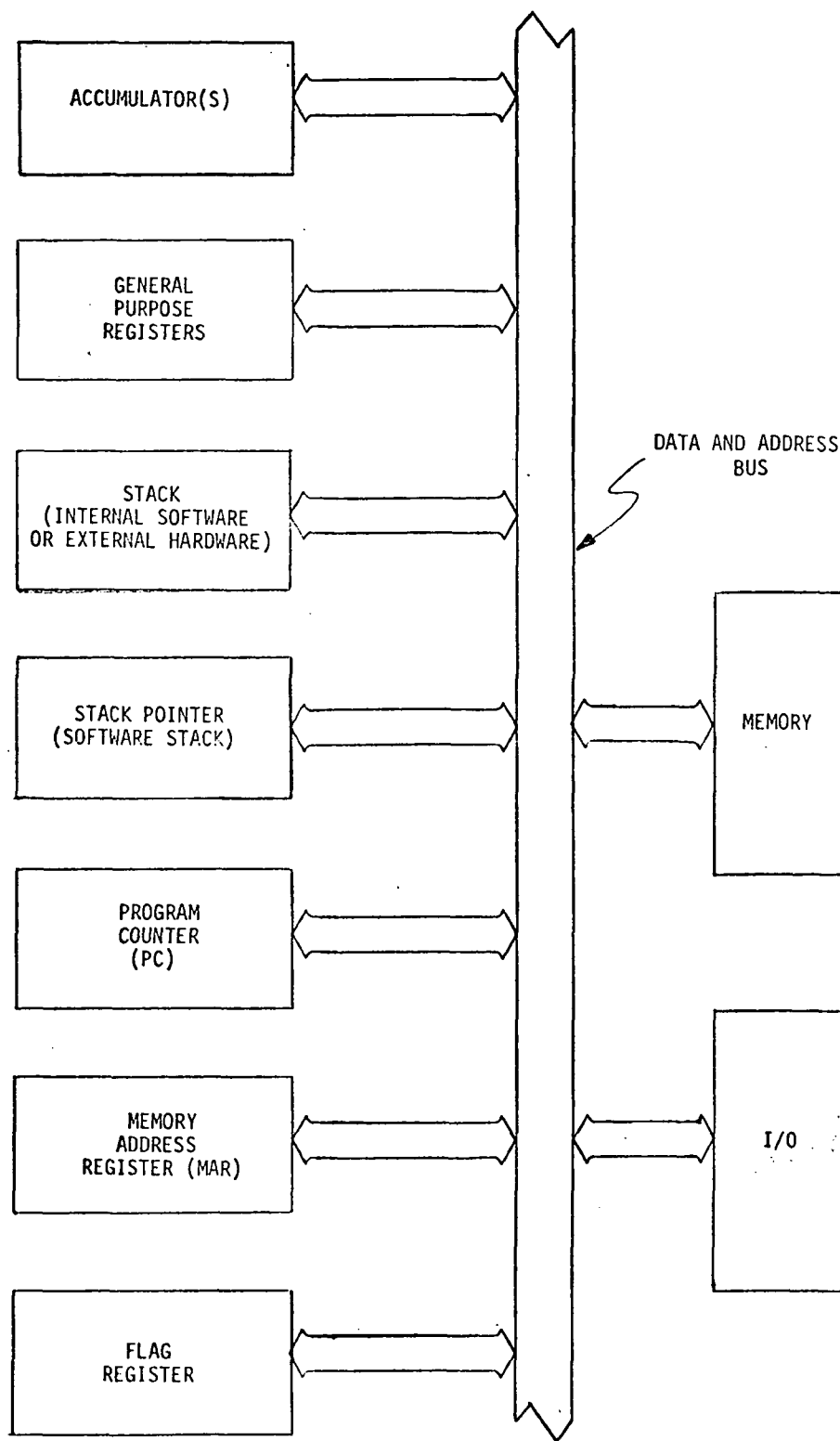


Figure 2.2.1(1) Data Movement in the Microcomputer.

Microprocessors execute instructions in a sequential manner unless otherwise directed by a decision and control instruction. Non-sequential alteration of the program counter is a result of the execution of a conditional or unconditional jump, jump to subroutine, return from subroutine, or skip instruction. Unconditional jump or call instructions are sometimes called branch instructions. Also, some authors prefer the use of the simpler term "call" to indicate a jump to subroutine type instruction.

The choice of input/output device interfacing depends largely on the nature of the input/output instructions provided by the particular microprocessor. Many microprocessors provide no formal input/output instructions. Instead, memory referencing instructions must be used with a technique called memory-mapped I/O (see Section 2.1.3). Input/output instructions provide data transfer between the microcomputer and external I/O devices.

An explanation of the instruction set of a particular microprocessor can generally be found in the user's manual published by that microprocessor's manufacturer. A complete description of the Intel 8080A instruction set used in the UT PDCP development system is contained in the Intel 8080A User's Manual [10]. A copy of the Intel 8080A User's Manual is included with the UT PDCP System Operation Manual.

Microcomputer instructions are similar to typical minicomputer instructions. The major difference is that the execution speed of instructions is generally much faster for a minicomputer. Recent technological advances, however, are narrowing this speed gap. Since the form and resulting operations of microcomputer instructions are similar to minicomputer instructions, texts and papers discussing general minicomputer instruction sets are applicable to microcomputer instructions. References 9, 11, and 12 provide excellent discussions of typical mini- and microcomputer instruction sets.

Microcomputer instructions sets vary considerably from manufacturer to manufacturer. The ability of a particular microprocessor to efficiently implement a PDCP is primarily a function of that particular

microprocessor's instruction set. Evaluation of the microprocessor's instruction set must be a primary consideration in the selection of a particular microprocessor for a PDCP design. As a result of the software development incorporated in this study (see Section 4), certain types of instructions appear to be highly desirable for PDCP applications. Choosing a microprocessor that contains as many of the desirable instruction types as possible will result in reduced memory costs due to more efficient coding. These desired instruction types are given higher weighting factors in the microprocessor evaluation presented in Section 6 of this report.

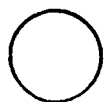
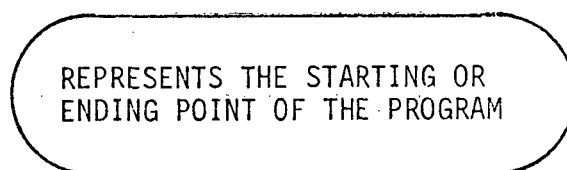
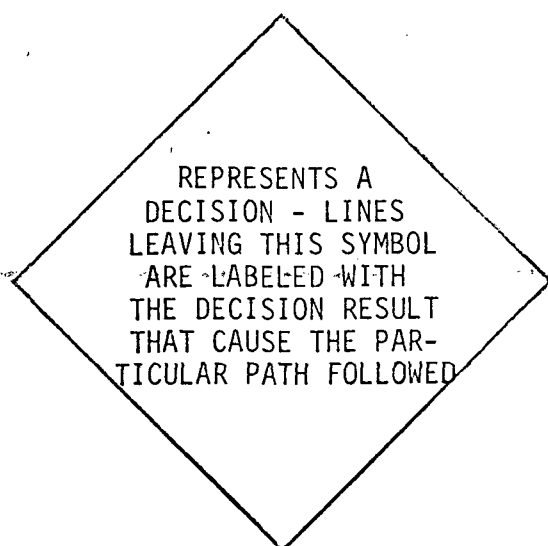
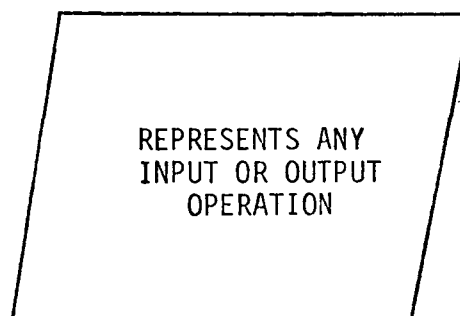
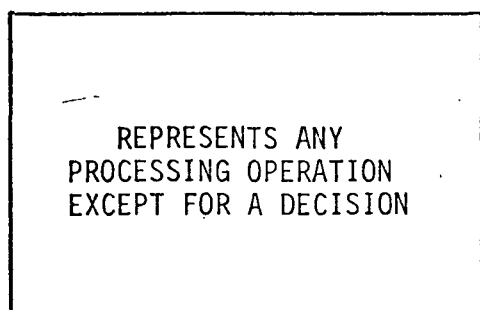
2.2.2 Microcomputer Programming

As indicated at the beginning of Section 2.2, the procedure for converting process control system algorithms to machine executable instructions is often called coding. Efficient coding requires a well structured algorithm. Flowcharting is a useful technique for reducing the algorithm to a form which can easily be converted to a computer program. The flow chart is a graphical representation of the distinct operations required to implement the computer program. Numerous examples of program flowcharting appear throughout Section 4 of this report. Typical flow chart symbols are presented in Figure 2.2.2(1). Once the flow chart for a program is developed, the programmer proceeds to implement each block of the flow chart using an appropriate programming language.

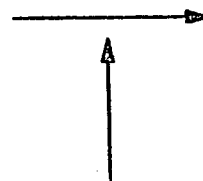
The basic programming tools available to the microcomputer programmer are:

1. Programming languages
2. Utility programs
3. Microprogramming

The first two tools are programs that are actually run on the particular microcomputer (resident program) or on some other computer (cross programming). Programming languages and utility programs are discussed in



REPRESENTS A CONNECTION
POINT BETWEEN TWO OR
MORE PATHS OF THE PROGRAM



ARROWS INDICATE
DIRECTION OF
PROGRAM FLOW

Figure 2.2.2(1) Typical Flow Chart Symbols.

Sections 2.2.2.1 and 2.2.2.2, respectively. The third tool, microprogramming, is discussed in Section 2.2.2.3 of this report.

2.2.2.1 Programming Languages - Programming languages are conveniently grouped into three classes [see Figure 2.2(1)]:

1. High-level languages (compilers and interpreters)
2. Intermediate level languages (assemblers)
3. Low-level languages (machine language and microprogramming)

High-level languages include compilers and interpreters such as FORTRAN, PL/M, COBOL, FOCAL, or BASIC. All five of these languages are currently available for one or more microprocessors. For example, the Intersil 6100 will support all software available for the DEC PDP-8E minicomputer including FOCAL, BASIC, COBOL, and FORTRAN. The Intel 8080A used in the UT PDCP development system is supported by FORTRAN, PL/M, BASIC, FOCAL, and COBOL. The significant advantages of high-level programming are machine independence and a reduction in programming time. High-level languages can reduce programming time by 50 to 80 percent. Also, existing high-level language programs can be recompiled to run on a microprocessor which supports the particular high-level language used. The high-level programming languages were each developed for particular programming tasks. FORTRAN is designed primarily to solve mathematical problems and thus may be useful for PDCP data processing. COBOL, however, is a business oriented language and would have little application in the PDCP field. PL/M, a microprocessor compiler originated by Intel, is a subset of IBM's powerful PL/I compiler. PL/M provides instructions oriented toward commercial control and scientific problem solving. BASIC is an interpretive language in that each line of source code is compiled as the program executes. BASIC requires a relatively large amount of memory to execute even short programs. This is because the BASIC source program and the BASIC interpreter program must both be resident in memory during program execution. A compiler differs from an interpreter in that the final compiled program is machine executable object code. The compiler is not needed once the object code is

generated. Finally, FOCAL is a language which was developed by Digital Equipment Corporation to fill the gap between BASIC and FORTRAN. Like BASIC, FOCAL is an interpretive language that requires considerable memory overhead to run even short programs. Neither BASIC nor FOCAL are recommended for potential PDCP application due to their high memory requirements.

The principle disadvantage of using any high-level language for PDCP programming is the inefficiency of the compiled object code. Another significant disadvantage is inadequate input/output flexibility. Also, program execution times are generally unknown and uncontrollable. PDCP software timing routines require precise knowledge of the number of machine states required to execute various subroutines. Even interrupt timing techniques (see Section 4) require knowledge of execution times. In this case, worst case execution times must be known to guarantee that the subroutine will be completed within the allotted time span.

Assembly languages are intermediate level languages. An assembler translates symbolic machine instructions or mnemonics directly into machine executable object code. A mnemonic is a short form symbolic name given to each instruction in the instruction set of a particular microprocessor. Mnemonics used to represent instructions vary greatly from manufacturer to manufacturer. This is due to the wide variation in microprocessor instruction sets. Since microprocessor instruction sets vary from machine to machine, assembly language programming is machine dependent. A primary disadvantage of assembly language programming is a direct result of the variation of instruction sets. The microcomputer programmer must be thoroughly familiar with the instruction set of the machine to be programmed. Furthermore, efficient assembly language programming requires complete understanding of the particular microcomputer's hardware architecture.

Many types of microcomputer assemblers are available. Cross assemblers are run on a machine other than the microcomputer for which the program is written, whereas resident assemblers are run on the machine for which the program is written. All assemblers translate symbolic

instructions to their equivalent object code. Several additional features are often found on current microcomputer assemblers. The most useful feature is a provision for symbolic addresses and constants. These symbolic names and labels can be used to represent address and data constants. This feature reduces programming errors by freeing the programmer from the burden of keeping track of absolute addresses and constants. Some assemblers even provide algebraic manipulation of address and data expressions. Recognition of pseudo assembly directives is provided by most assemblers. For example, the pseudo directive "END" informs a typical 8080A assembler that the location of the END directive marks the end of the source code to be assembled. Macroassemblers usually provide for all the above features plus the assembly of macroinstructions. A macroinstruction is a single line instruction used to represent a multi-instruction sequence. This feature supplies some of the programming simplicity of a high-level language since a single line of source code can replace many machine instructions. Note, however, that assembly language efficiency is retained. Other features provided by some microcomputer assemblers include conditional assembly directives, relocation and linkage of multiple program segments, optional assembler listing formats, and loading of object code output directly into memory or to some external storage device for later loading into memory. Microcomputer assemblers are quite similar to typical minicomputer assemblers. References 13 and 14 provide general discussions of typical mini- and microcomputer assemblers.

2.2.2.2 Utility Programs - Once a program has been written and translated to object code, the object code must be loaded into the system memory and the program must be checked for correct operation. A loader program is used to load the object code directly into memory. A loader program is not required when using a programming language that outputs object code directly to memory. This feature is provided by some microprocessor assemblers. Certain high-level languages do not have object code output (such as BASIC). In this case, a loader is required to enter the source code. Several types of program loaders are available for current microcomputers. The simplest is a boot-strap loader. The boot-strap loader program is purposely very short and

provides none of the error checking or other advanced features typical of the more complex general purpose loaders. A simple boot-strap loader could be used to load any program; however, the boot-strap loader is typically used to read a more sophisticated loader. Control is then transferred to the second loader which usually provides error-checking and automatic program start-up following the loading process. Unless a machine has non-volatile memory pre-programmed with a loader, the programmer must manually load a boot-strap loader program to initiate subsequent program loading. The UT PDCP development system includes an error-checking cassette loader routine as an integral part of the system monitor program (see the System Operation Manual). The loader routine is stored in PROM (programmable read only memory) and is available to the user at all times.

Once a user program is loaded into memory, the program can be executed and checked for correct operation. If the program runs correctly, the software task is complete. Typically, however, programs contain "bugs" which prevent correct operation of the program. The bugs must be removed by a technique called program debugging. Microcomputer programs which allow examination and alteration of memory contents to assist the programmer in debugging and correcting the program are available. Often these programs include a routine which will print the CPU status (register contents). Breakpoints may be set in memory to temporarily suspend program execution when a specified point in the program is encountered. Thus, breakpoints permit the programmer to examine CPU status and memory at any point of program execution. This enables the programmer to debug the program in small sections. As bugs are found, they are corrected, if possible, by altering the instruction sequence in memory. Often the programmer will initially insert "no operation" instructions throughout an untested program. This provides memory space between the original program instructions so that additional instructions can be inserted if they are required. The UT PDCP system monitor contains extensive program debugging aids.

A simulator program provides a very powerful technique for testing and debugging a microcomputer program. A simulator program, as the name

implies, simulates the operation of the microcomputer. Program development and testing is simplified by using a large computer system supported by peripherals such as a video display terminal, a high-speed line printer, and a disk drive. The full potential of a simulator can only be realized by using such a developmental system.

The simulator provides the basic function of program instruction tracing. That is, the result of executing each instruction can be displayed and verified by the programmer. Any discrepancy between what the program actually does and what the programmer feels should be happening is immediately evident. The programmer can then patch the program to correct errors as they are found. The process continues until the program runs without error. Some simulators provide additional features such as counting machine states required to execute a program segment, optional tracing and listing modes, and simulated memory examination and alteration. Final program verification must be performed on the actual PDCP system since the simulator cannot verify correct operation of I/O and control interfacing. For example, external A/D conversion may be dependent on software timing which must be verified on the actual PDCP hardware system. Full simulator potential plus final checkout could be achieved simultaneously by using a microcomputer development system that includes the same hardware interfaces that are used on the PDCP system.

2.2.2.3 Microprogramming - A microprogram is an integral part of the control logic of most microprocessors. In a microprogrammed control unit, the numerous individual operations required to execute each instruction cycle are defined by microinstructions fetched from a read-only-memory or a programmable logic array. Therefore, each macroinstruction written by a user is actually executed by a microprogram, and the instruction set of the microprocessor is defined by the set of microprograms stored in the CPU control unit read-only-memory.

Some microprocessor organizations are designed to permit users to specify the microprogram. These microprogrammable microprocessors offer users the potential advantage of defining an optimal instruction set for their particular application. Microprogramming essentially extends the advantages of programmed logic one step further down the quantum ladder.

The constraint of a predefined instruction set is removed leaving only the basic constraints imposed by the hardware architecture of a particular microprocessor.

The PDCP software development portion of this study (Section 4) provides some insight into the problem of defining an optimal microcomputer instruction set for a PDCP. In Section 4.3, the potential contributions of microprogramming to the development of block operator subroutines for the library of an applications-oriented software development system are outlined. General microprogramming concepts are discussed in References 8, 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19.

REFERENCES

1. Lewis, D. R., "Microprocessor or Random Logic," Electronics Design 18, September 1, 1973.
2. Electronics Staff, "Diverse Industry Users Clamber Aboard the Microprocessor Band Wagon," Electronics, July 11, 1974, pp. 81-108.
3. Altman, L., "Single-Chip Microprocessors Open Up New World of Applications," Electronics, April 18, 1974, pp. 81-87.
4. Smith, H., "Impact of Microcomputers on the Designer," 1973 WESCON Technical Papers, Session 2.
5. Morris, J. H., Patel, H., and Schwartz, M., "Scamp Microprocessor Aims to Replace Mechanical Logic," Electronics, September 18, 1975, pp. 81-87.
6. Chung, D., "Four-Chip Microprocessor Family Reduces System Parts Counts," Electronics, March 6, 1975, pp. 87-92.
7. Weissberger, A. J., "Microprocessors Simplify Industrial Control," Electronic Design 22, October 25, 1975, pp. 96-99.
8. Galey, J. M., "Microprogramming: The Bridge Between Hardware and Software," Computer, August 1975, Vol. 8, No. 8, p. 23.
9. Weiss, C. D., "Software for MOS/LSI Microprocessors," Electronic Design 7, April 1, 1974, pp. 50-57.
10. Intel 8080 Microcomputer User's Manual, July 1975, pp. 4-1 to 4-15.
11. Mano, M. M., Computer Logic Design, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 326-377.
12. Korn, G. A., Minicomputers for Engineers and Scientists, McGraw-Hill, New York, New York, pp. 44-63.
13. Korn, G. A., Minicomputers for Engineers and Scientists, McGraw-Hill, New York, New York, pp. 206-213.
14. Weiss, C. D., "MOS/LSI Microcomputer Coding," Electronic Design 8, April 12, 1974, pp. 66-71.
15. Jones, L. H., "A Survey of Current Work in Microprogramming," Computer, August 1975, Vol. 8, No. 8, pp. 33-37.
16. Broadbent, J. K., "Microprogramming and System Architecture," The Computer Journal, Vol. 17, 1974, pp. 2-8.

17. Cox, G. W. and Schneider, V. B., "On Improving Operating System Efficiency Through Use of a Microprogrammed, Low-Level Environment," Preprints, Micro 7, pp. 297-298.
18. Montangero, C., "An Approach to the Optimal Specification of Read-Only Memories in Microprogrammed Digital Computers," IEEE - Trans. Computers, Vol. C-23, April 1974, pp. 375-387.
19. Vandling, G. C. and Walddecker, D. E., "The Microprogram Control Technique for Digital Logic Design," Computer Design, August 1969, pp. 44-51.

3. PDCP SYSTEM HARDWARE

PDCP system hardware must be designed to satisfy the constraints imposed by the remote data collection application. Typically, design goals include minimizing power consumption, weight, maintenance, and cost while providing accurate and reliable operation. As illustrated in Figure 3(1), DCP hardware can be partitioned into three systems consisting of the sensors, the digital control logic, and the transmitter. This section discusses the influence of microprocessor technology on the design of each system of a PDCP. In addition, standards which could promote lower PDCP costs are recommended, and the development of a standard, modular PDCP design is proposed.

3.1 SENSOR CLASSIFICATION AND INTERFACING

The most variable elements in data collection systems are the sensors. With measurements being made in such diverse fields as agriculture, ecology, hydrology, and search and rescue, many types of sensors must be accommodated by the data collection platform. A signal conditioner is generally placed between the sensor output and the DCP to convert the sensor output to a standard electrical signal which is compatible with the DCP. In previous systems, this signal has been a voltage, a frequency, or a digital logic level depending upon the particular design of a data collection platform telemetry system. For programmable data collection platforms, the ideal interface occurs at digital logic levels. For analog sensors, an analog-to-digital converter is required as a signal conditioner. The sensor interface is then made at the input to the analog-to-digital converter.

3.1.1 Sensor Classification

User requirements have been documented in recent studies [1]. Table 3.1.1(1) gives a list of the disciplines which have a need for data collection by satellite. Table 3.1.1(2) provides a list of parameters for which sensors are required and the discipline in which the

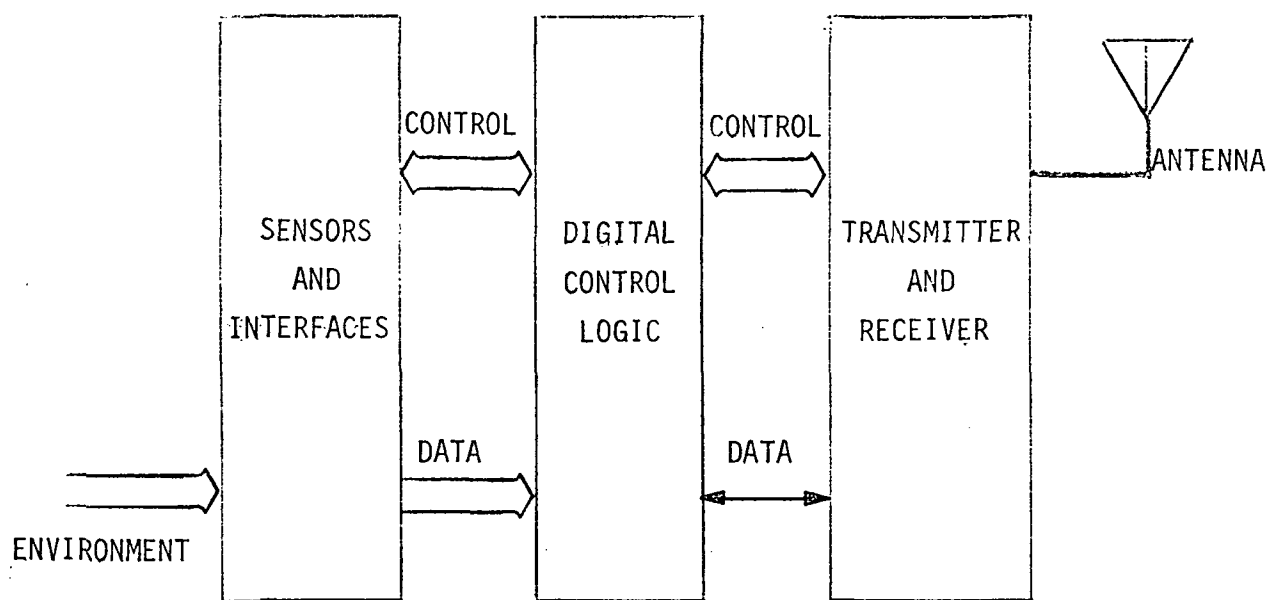


Figure 3(1) DCP Hardware Subsystems.

TABLE 3.1.1(1)
SATELLITE DATA COLLECTION DISCIPLINES

Disciplines	
Agriculture	Meteorology
Biological Behavior	Navigation
Ecology	Oceanography
Geology	Search and Rescue
Hydrology	Transportation

TABLE 3.1.1(2)

SENSOR MEASUREMENT PARAMETERS AND
ASSOCIATED DISCIPLINES

Parameter	Discipline
Acceleration	Biological Behavior
Acoustic Noise	Oceanography
Acoustic Output	Biological Behavior
Activity (Time Up and Down)	Biological Behavior
Aerosols	Meteorology
Air Particles	Biological Behavior Ecology
Air Pollution	Agriculture
Albedo	Geology
Bioluminescence	Oceanography
Blood Pressure	Biological Behavior
Body Position	Biological Behavior
Cargo Security	Transportation
Chlorine	Oceanography
Cloud Cover	Agriculture
Conductivity	Ecology Geology
Creepmeter	Geology
Crop Condition	Agriculture
Dew Point/Front Point	Hydrology
Dissolved Oxygen (Water)	Ecology Hydrology
Diving Depth	Biological Behavior
EKG	Biological Behavior Ecology
Evaporation	Hydrology
Geographical Fix	Agriculture Biological Behavior Ecology Geology Oceanography Search and Rescue Transportation

TABLE 3.1.1(2) (continued)

Parameter	Discipline
Heading (Compass)	Biological Behavior
Heart Rate	Biological Behavior
Humidity (Relative)	Agriculture Ecology Geology Meteorology Oceanography
Ice Presence	Hydrology
Ice Thickness	Hydrology
Light at Surface	Ecology
Light Penetration	Ecology
Magnetic Field	Geology
Oxidents	Meteorology
Oxygen Concentration	Agriculture
Particle Counts (Airborne)	Ecology
pH (Soil)	Ecology
pH (Stomach)	Biological Behavior
pH (Water)	Ecology Hydrology
Phytoplankton Counting	Ecology Oceanography
Pipeline Current	Geology
Pipeline Voltage	Geology
Pitch Angle	Biological Behavior
Pore Pressure	Geology
Precipitation	Agriculture Ecology Hydrology Meteorology
Pressure, Atmospheric	Meteorology Oceanography
River Stage	Ecology
Salinity	Agriculture Ecology Oceanography

TABLE 3.1.1(2) (continued)

Parameter	Discipline
Sediment	Ecology
Seismometer	Geology
Snow Cover	Agriculture Meteorology
Snow Depth	Agriculture Hydrology
Snow Moisture Equivalent	Hydrology
Soil Moisture	Agriculture Ecology Hydrology
Solar Radiation (Surface and Depth)	Ecology
Solar Radiation (Net Allware)	Agriculture Biological Behavior Ecology Hydrology Meteorology
Specific Conductance	Hydrology
Storm Surge	Meteorology
Strain, Biaxial	Geology
Strain Gage	Oceanography
Speed, Swimming	Biological Behavior
Tail Beat (EKL)	Biological Behavior
Telluric Current (On Pipe)	Geology
Telluric Current Frequency	Geology
Temperature, Air	Agriculture Biological Behavior Ecology Geology Meteorology Oceanography
Temperature, Body Surface	Biological Behavior
Temperature, Cargo	Transportation
Temperature, Deep Body	Biological Behavior

TABLE 3.1.1(2) (continued)

Parameter	Discipline
Temperature, Sea Surface	Meteorology
Temperature, Soil	Ecology Meteorology
Temperature, Stomach	Biological Behavior
Temperature, Surface	Biological Behavior
Temperature, Water	Biological Behavior Ecology Hydrology Oceanography
Tide Height	Ecology
Tilt, Biaxial	Geology
Time	Biological Behavior
Time In and Out of Water	Biological Behavior
Total Organic Carbon	Ecology
Tsunami	Geology
Turbidity	Ecology Hydrology Oceanography
Vapor Pressure	Agriculture
Water Current Profile	Oceanography
Water Depth	Biological Behavior
Water Direction	Oceanography
Water Level	Geology Hydrology
Water Table Depth	Hydrology
Water Velocity	Biological Behavior Ecology Hydrology Oceanography
Wave Height	Transportation
Wave Spectra	Oceanography
Wildland Fire	Ecology
Wind Profile	Agriculture

TABLE 3.1.1(2) (continued)

Parameter	Discipline
Wind Speed	Biological Behavior Ecology Geology Hydrology Meteorology Oceanography
Wind Vector (Direction)	Agriculture Hydrology Meteorology Oceanography

sensor could be utilized. Among this list are sensors which have already seen service in satellite data collection systems. A typical group composed of hydrology sensors is listed in Table 3.1.1(3) along with their signal conditioner outputs. While the direct output of each sensor may be a measurement in volts, amperes, or ohms with nonlinear and suppressed zero scales, the signal conditioners have conveniently translated the output ranges to lie between zero and plus five volts.

3.1.2 Sensor Interfacing

A number of sensors already exist which could interface directly with a programmable data collection platform including those in Table 3.1.1(3) with the addition of an analog-to-digital converter. Some sensors include their own signal conditioning equipment which converts the basic sensor output to a digital logic level. For example, the temperature sensor in the TWERLE experiment converts the measured temperature to a frequency output. A counter measures the number of cycles of this frequency over a fixed period; the contents of the counter registers are a digital representation of the temperature value.

Two basic classes of signal conditioners will probably be required in a PDCP system. One class converts the non-standard basic sensor output to a standard output. This will normally be the responsibility of the sensor designer. A second class of signal conditioners converts the standard output to digital logic levels which are compatible with the microcomputer. In many cases, the second class of signal conditioners will be time-shared between a number of sensors and would be provided as a standard module by the PDCP designer. Of course, a direct conversion of the basic sensor output to a logic level is very desirable since this eliminates the need for the second class of signal conditioners; however, the second class of signal conditioners will be required to utilize existing sensors. Fortunately, these signal conditioners convert from a standard input to a standard output; therefore, their cost is low.

TABLE 3.1.1(3)
TYPICAL SATELLITE DATA COLLECTION SENSORS

Sensor	Signal Conditioning Output Specification
Dissolved Oxygen	0.0 to +5.0 Volts dc
pH	0.0 to +5.0 Volts dc
Specific Conductance	0.0 to +5.0 Volts dc
Temperature	0.0 to +5.0 Volts dc

3.1.2.1. Sensor Interface - Little can be said about the basic sensor output since this can be almost any variable. The sensor signal conditioner takes this output and converts it to a standard output. Traditionally, for analog sensors this output has been zero to plus five volts dc. Another standard range for low-voltage or low-current devices has been zero to 50 millivolts dc. If at this point in time a recommendation were to be made for a standard output range for analog sensors, it would have to be zero to plus five volts. This, however, may present a problem if some of the newer technologies are used in fabricating the microprocessor. The integrated injection logic (I^2L) technology (see Section 6.1) can operate at voltages lower than one volt, and operating the signal conditioner from the same power supply voltage would be advantageous. This would require a low-voltage output from the signal conditioner.

As previously mentioned, some sensors produce a digital output directly. The analog-to-digital conversion process may be built into the sensor. The output of such a sensor should have an interface compatible with CMOS logic. In contrast to the analog output of zero to plus five volts dc, the digital sensor output should be as follows: a zero would be represented by a level between zero and 0.8 volts, and a logical one would be represented by a level of 3.5 to 5 volts dc. Until more experience is gained with I^2L devices, the above specification for the output of the digital sensor would be a reasonable recommendation.

3.1.2.2. Microprocessor Interface - The second level of signal conditioning converts the standard interface signals to signals which match the logic characteristics of the microprocessor. The most common signal conditioner of this type is the analog-to-digital converter (ADC). This device takes a zero to plus five-volt dc analog signal and converts it to an equivalent digital word. For the PDCP application, the ADC output should be coded in natural binary at CMOS compatible logic levels. A parallel output word will generally be required for direct interface to the microprocessor data bus. However, in some applications where the ADC and sensor must be located in an area remote from the PDCP a clocked serial output is desirable to minimize the number of wires required for the data link. Both the parallel and serial outputs should be three-state outputs to permit the signal lines to be shared with other devices.

In a three-state device two states are the usual high or low output (input) states. A control signal converts this output (input) to a high impedance state effectively removing the device from the bus. Suitable low-power CMOS-logic ADC's which would interface directly to the bus of a CMOS microprocessor-based PDCP are commercially available.

Similar to the analog-to-digital converter is the frequency-to-digital converter which is needed by sensors having an output frequency proportional to the measured variable. This conversion of frequency to a digital signal can be performed by the microprocessor with no external hardware. Using the Intel 8080A-1 microprocessor, sensor frequencies up to approximately 20 kilohertz can be digitized. The frequency-to-digital conversion capability of the microprocessor provides a low cost interface to a variety of sensors since most sensor outputs can conveniently be produced as a frequency.

A big advantage in interfacing the microprocessor with a set of sensors is that sensors with different resolution requirements can easily be accommodated. For example, one sensor may require a resolution of eight bits and another require a resolution of sixteen bits from a time-shared ADC. For the eight-bit resolution sensor only the eight highest-order bits need to be multiplexed from the ADC while the whole sixteen bits of the high resolution sensor would be transferred to the microprocessor. This is easily accomplished through program control.

3.2 DIGITAL CONTROL LOGIC AND MEMORY

In current DCP designs, the digital control system is generally a hardwired logic circuit manufactured with standard CMOS integrated circuits. Because of the cost and complexity of the random logic design, control functions are limited to elementary sensor control, data formatting, and transmitter control. A microprocessor-based PDCP will be capable of performing additional tasks such as data compaction and data preprocessing without excessive cost increases (see Section 4).

A block diagram of a microprocessor-based PDCP control system is illustrated in Figure 3.2(1). The number of integrated circuits required to implement this system will depend upon input/output require-

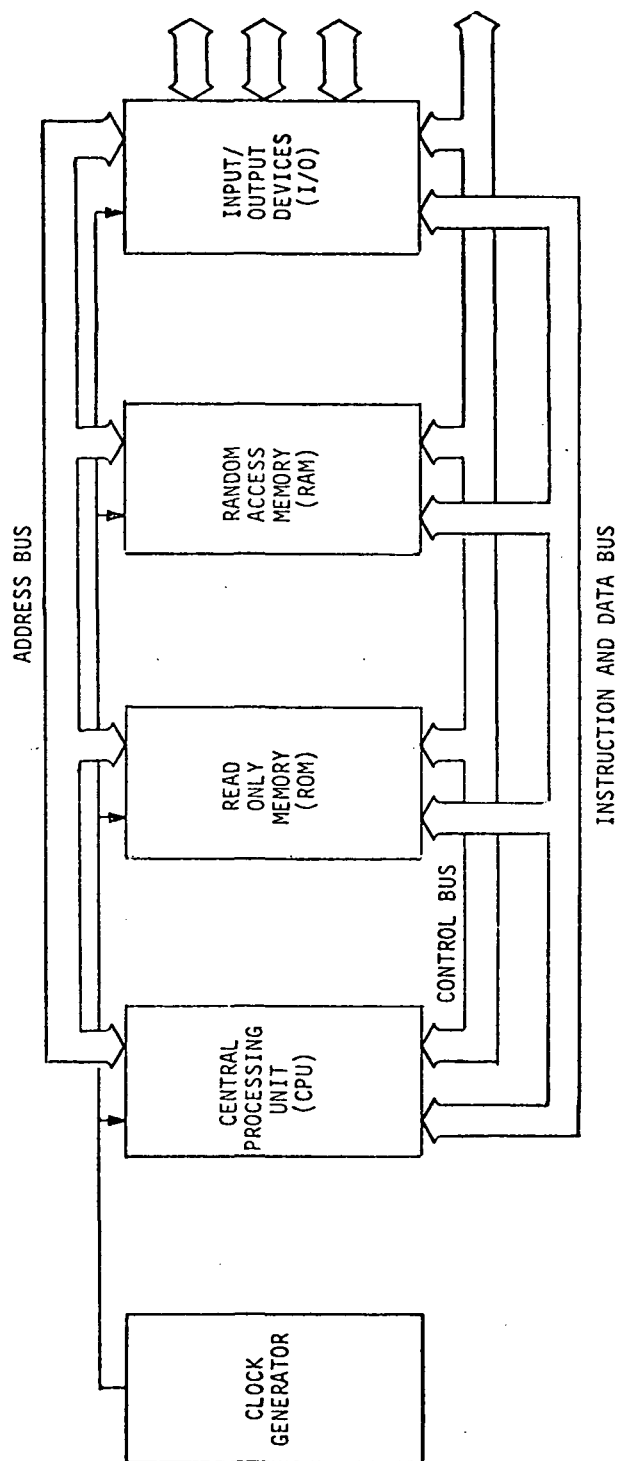


Figure 3.2(1) Microprocessor Based PDCP Control Subsystem Organization.

ments, memory requirements, and the microprocessor architecture. Already, two-chip microprocessor sets containing a clock circuit, 64 bytes of RAM, 1024 bytes of ROM, and several input/output ports are available. Thus, a minimal PDCP control system may require as few as two integrated circuits.

Future DCP user requirements are expected to range from basic platforms capable of performing the tasks of current DCP's through advanced platforms capable of extensive data preprocessing and data compaction. From the standpoint of economics, a standard, universal DCP design is desirable. This goal is impractical for a random logic design but is practical for a microprocessor-based PDCP design. As illustrated in Figure 3.2(1), the microprocessor-based PDCP control system organization is based upon address, control, and data buses. This organization produces a system which is modularly expandable. A basic PDCP capable of replacing current DCP designs will utilize all of the functions shown in Figure 3.2(1). An advanced PDCP with extensive data compaction capabilities will utilize the identical functions. The distinction between these systems will be the amount of ROM, RAM, and I/O provided and their software organizations. Section 4 demonstrates that a unique PDCP software organization can be defined for each user by plugging a different ROM into the system. Thus, a PDCP design which will function efficiently as a basic DCP but which can easily be expanded to form an advanced processing PDCP can be developed.

Physically, the standard PDCP design could be implemented as a modular set of printed circuit (PC) boards. A basic PDCP system would probably require one or two small PC boards. The system could be expanded by adding extra integrated circuits in spaces provided on the basic PC card set. Large scale expansion would involve adding standard memory or I/O cards and, possibly, bus driver circuits. This implementation of the standard PDCP design would provide most potential users with the capability they require at a minimum cost since the design and development expenses could be prorated. If a potential user did require a unique PDCP construction, the electrical design would not necessarily have to be changed. Additional PC board development cost would be incurred, but additional circuit design cost would not be incurred.

3.3 TRANSMITTER, RECEIVER, AND ANTENNA

Section 4.4.3 demonstrates that a microprocessor-based PDCP can easily control transmitter modules which have been developed for current DCP designs. Transmitter control inputs should be digital signals compatible with the technology chosen for the PDCP control system. Otherwise, no constraints are imposed upon the electrical design of transmitters and antennas for PDCP's. Traditional design techniques are satisfactory.

Since the sensor interface and digital control systems of a PDCP will be developed as modular PC board sets, the transmitter system could be similarly designed. One approach is to provide individual transmitter modules designed specifically for each data transmission technique. The PDCP user could then customize the modular system by selecting a transmitter module (Landsat, GOES, TWERLE, or TIROS-N), a basic or expanded control module, and various sensor interface modules. For data collection platforms installed near land lines, a telephone modem module could be chosen instead of a specific transmitter module.

A better approach would be to utilize the flexible nature of the microprocessor to control a single modulator which can emulate the modulation of all of the data collection systems. A standard PDCP system will be capable of operating with all current data transmission formats under software control by using the techniques demonstrated in Section 4.4.3. As a result, a universal transmitter design that can switch between the various data transmission modes under software control could be designed. The required carrier frequencies might be developed from a standard frequency reference by a phase-locked loop containing a programmable frequency divider. This system would eliminate the requirement for multiple transmitter modules and would be more adaptable to any future changes in data transmission techniques. A further study will be required to determine the potential cost effectiveness and performance of the two transmitter construction techniques outlined above.

Some DCP's have been developed with receivers for remote command applications. A PDCP with this capability can be produced by adding a receiver module to the system. The receiver should be interfaced to the PDCP buses at standard logic levels. PDCP software can be developed to poll the receiver and decode the command signals as they are received. Alternately, the receiver can provide a signal to the interrupt line of the microprocessor to indicate that a command signal is being received. The microprocessor would then suspend data processing operations temporarily to input and decode the control message.

3.4 SUMMARY

The problem of standardization of sensor output and microprocessor input is a difficult one to solve; however, attempts should be made towards standardization to reduce the types of signal conditioners required.

It is recommended that new designs for analog sensors have outputs which are 0.0 to +5.0 volts dc. The recommendation for digital interface for CMOS logic is zero to 0.8 volts for a logical zero and 3.5 to 5 volts dc for a logical one.

REFERENCES

1. Wolfe, E. A., Cote, C. E., and Painter, J. E., Satellite Data Collection User Requirements Workshop, NASA - Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Maryland, May 21, 1975.

4. PDCP SYSTEM SOFTWARE

As demonstrated in Section 2, significant advantages can often be obtained by replacing a hardwired circuit with a software-controlled microprocessor system. The potential advantages of a programmed logic system arise from substitution of relatively inexpensive software storage for complex hardwired circuits. Therefore, the flexibility and cost effectiveness of a PDCP will be highly dependent upon the system software and the extent to which PDCP functions can be software controlled. Unfortunately, system constraints can preclude the use of programmed logic, and, as shown in Section 2, the cost of developing special purpose software for low quantity applications can be excessive. This section will demonstrate that microprocessors are capable of performing PDCP tasks and describe a potential PDCP software package organization designed to minimize software development cost. Included also are discussions of the effects of various PDCP system constraints on the software package and descriptions of subroutines which have been developed for typical PDCP applications.

4.1 PDCP SOFTWARE ORGANIZATION

Standardization is the key to minimum PDCP system cost. However, a PDCP design must be sufficiently flexible to operate efficiently with a number of different sensors, data compaction techniques, and data transmission formats. In addition, a software system organization which provides a simple technique by which individual experimenters and organizations can create special purpose PDCP programs is desirable. The PDCP software system organization outlined in Figure 4.1(1) is designed to meet these goals.

A PDCP software package based on the organization proposed in Figure 4.1(1) would contain an executive program and a number of called subroutines. The executive program controls the operation of the PDCP by executing a set of conditional and unconditional calls to various subroutines. A different executive routine will generally be required for

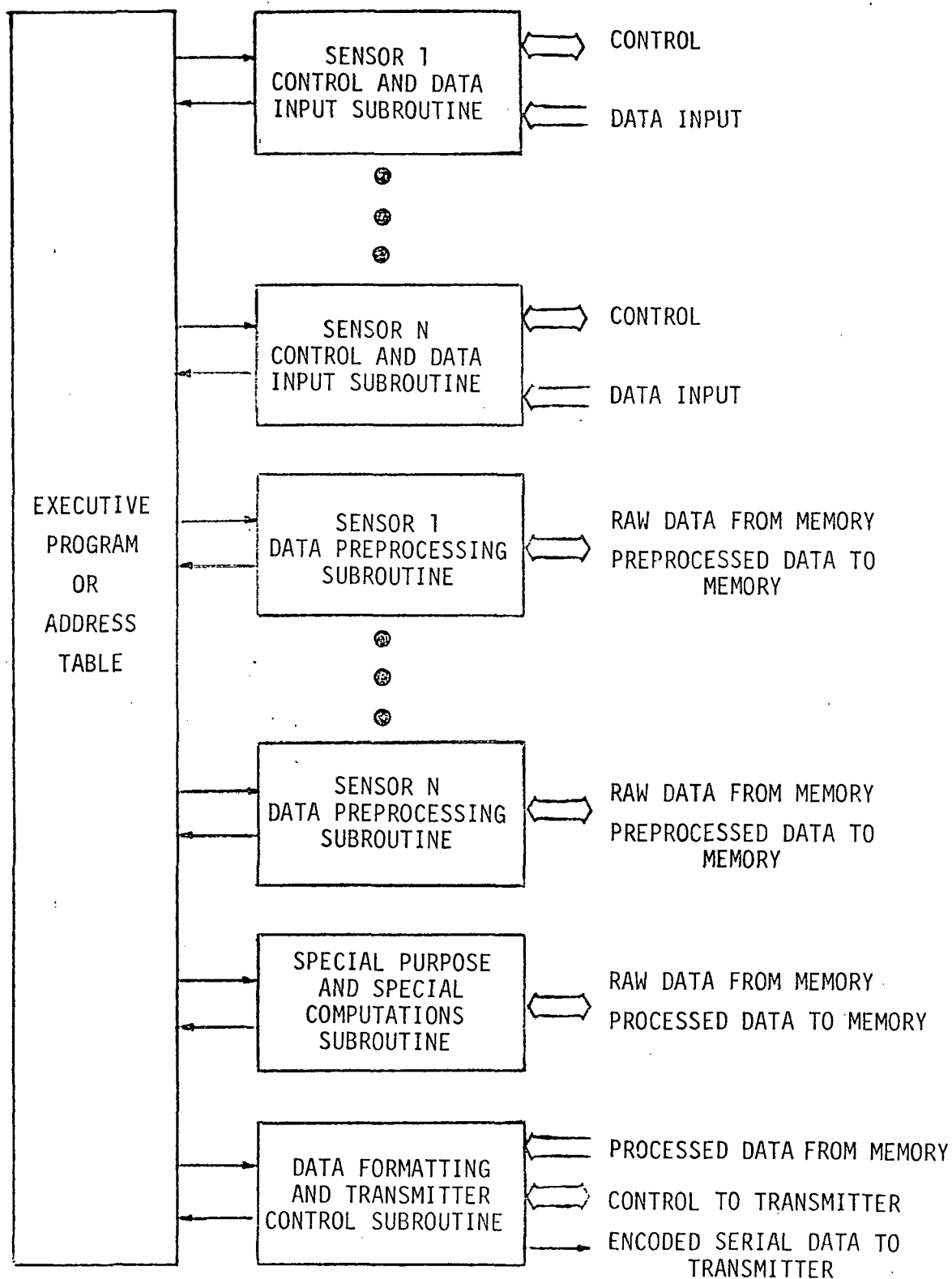


Figure 4.1(1) PDCP Software System Organization.

each different application. Major subroutines called by the executive program control the sampling of a raw sensor data, preprocessing of raw data, special computations, and data transmission to the satellite. The executive program and major subroutines share multipurpose minor subroutines such as software delay loops. Standard sensor data input, general purpose data preprocessing, and transmitter control routines can be provided to users as firmware ROM options for the PDCP. Using this approach, most PDCP software development costs can be prorated over a large number of PDCP's so that the effective software cost will be minimal. The additional program development required for new PDCP software systems could generally be restricted to an executive routine and, when necessary, special purpose subroutines. Since complex control and data processing tasks would generally be controlled by subroutines, the cost of developing executive programs should be low. Special subroutine development costs can be minimized by maintaining a user program library.

4.2 PDCP SYSTEM TIMING

The program organization proposed above is independent of the various system constraints imposed upon PDCP software and the actual techniques used for program development. The major PDCP system constraints which will affect software development is timing. In many cases, the usual goal of minimum execution time will apply to data preprocessing and special purpose subroutines. In general, however, sensor control and transmitter subroutines will require precise timing between specified events, and the total elapsed time between data transmissions should be precisely controlled. These constraints must be considered during PDCP software system development.

Software and interrupt timing are the two basic techniques which can be employed to insure correct PDCP transmission intervals. The microprocessor and associated support logic must operate continuously if software timing is employed. For low power CMOS or I^2L devices, this is not necessarily a disadvantage since maximum throughput can be obtained with a continuously operating system. In addition, however, the precise execution time for each PDCP software routine must be known, and provision must be made for holding the total program execution time between

transmissions constant. Most programs contain various mutually exclusive branches which may require different execution times. As a result, delay must be inserted within certain program branches to equalize execution times. Alternately, program execution time can be allowed to vary if each time the subroutine is called a flag is set to indicate the actual execution time. The executive program may then use any excess time to call optional subroutines (for example, system maintenance or low priority data input routines) and a variable delay subroutine. Although average throughput can be increased using this technique, worst-case throughput is not necessarily improved. The major advantage of software timing is that neither an interval timer nor interrupt logic is required.

Interrupt timing can be relatively independent of system software but requires the use of an external interval timer and interrupt logic. The microprocessor can be powered-down between transmissions or operated continuously. Worst-case execution time for each subroutine must be known in order to guarantee that the microprocessor will either complete data input or processing before a new transmission is required or will be executing an interruptable routine. In the event that the transmission request interrupt is allowed to occur before data processing has been completed, the programmer will have the choice of discarding unprocessed data or completing the processing at the conclusion of the transmission sequence.

Assembly language programming can be used to develop subroutines utilizing either interrupt or software timing. Programs written in assembly language generally provide maximum performance while requiring minimal storage area. Efficient assembly language programming, however, requires a thorough knowledge of the available instruction set and entails the highest development cost per program. Subroutines which require precise internal timing, and general purpose subroutines which will be included in firmware ROM packages provided to PDCP users should be written in assembly language. This will insure precise timing and minimal program storage area. Unfortunately, assembly language programming cost for small-quantity, special-purpose systems could be excessive and should be avoided when possible.

The development of many types of numeric data processing subroutines could be simplified by using a high-level language such as PL-1, FORTRAN, COBAL, or BASIC. Each of these languages is represented by a compiler written for at least one microprocessor. The major disadvantages of these languages are inadequate input/output structures, inefficient memory utilization, and poorly defined timing. Subroutines written using these high-level languages cannot be used in a PDCP software system which relies upon software timing unless the resulting machine code is investigated to determine all possible execution times. Even for an interrupt-timed system, the maximum execution time of the subroutines must be determined to insure that processing can be completed between transmissions.

4.3 PDCP SOFTWARE DEVELOPMENT

As presented above, neither assembly languages nor standard high-level languages are ideally suited for the development of PDCP software systems. This problem is not unique to the data collection field but is of general concern in the areas of mini- and microcomputer programming. Therefore, a new program development technique which retains the advantages of both high-level and assembly languages should be developed.

4.3.1 Applications-Oriented Software Development

A simplified technique for microcomputer programming by applications-oriented nonprogrammers has recently been proposed by Korn [1]. This technique is based on a software system organization nearly identical to the one illustrated in Figure 4.1(1). Korn [1] assumes that a set of well-defined assembly language, block-operator subroutines are available to perform each of the subfunctions which may be required by an applications program. The applications program is specified by means of a block-diagram employing the standard functions. An interactive editor/translator program running on a small minicomputer is used to translate the block-diagram specifications into an address table. The address table serves the same function as the executive program proposed in Figure 4.1(1). During program execution, the address table specifies successive jumps to the standard subroutines required to correctly execute

the applications program. A choice between the address table and executive program techniques will depend upon the extent to which indirect addressing and subroutine calls are supported by a particular microprocessor's instruction set.

Korn [1] states that the editor/translator programming system should satisfy the following requirements:

1. The language used to communicate with the editor/translator program should be easy to learn and understand.
2. Simple elementary operations well known to engineers and scientists should be used to build up complex operations.
3. The language should be entirely independent of the specific microcomputer used.
4. The editor/translator system should generate microprocessor code as efficient in the use of time and memory as that developed by a good assembly language programmer.

These goals are applicable to the proposed PDCP program development system but are not sufficient. A PDCP program development system should also satisfy the following requirements:

1. In addition to the elementary operations, as many major PDCP system programs as possible should be available to the user in block form. For example, this would include transmitter programs (see Section 3.3) and the zero-order floating aperture predictor subroutine (see Section 3.2).
2. Memory requirements should be indicated to the user in a form that is representative of memory cost. This implies that memory required for storage of the executive program (usually, user defined ROM or PROM) should be listed separately from data storage or scratch pad RAM memory. Also, the number of firmware ROM modules required for storage of the standard subroutines should be indicated.

3. Program execution time should be indicated to the user, and an error should be noted if the program execution time exceeds a specified transmission interval.
4. Alternate subroutine structures should be available for software and interrupt-timed systems. This is necessary to obtain maximum system throughput with minimum program storage area.

A PDCP software development system with the capabilities described above could significantly enhance usage of PDCP's by applications-oriented nonprogrammers.

4.3.2 Assembly Language and Microprogrammed Subroutines

To insure efficiency and accurate timing, the functional block subroutines employed in the programming system described above should be developed by experienced programmers using assembly language and/or microprogramming techniques. Within the constraints of a given instruction set, assembly language programming can produce the optimum realization of a particular software task. Many microprocessors have general purpose instruction sets which are fixed by hardwired control logic integrated within the microprocessor chip itself. These instruction sets must be individually evaluated to determine their relative merits in particular applications such as PDCP programming (see Section 6). In contrast, the instruction set of a microprogrammable microprocessor can be optimized for a particular application. A microprogrammed microprocessor utilizes a programmed logic control unit rather than a hardwired control unit. This permits the user to define and sequence microprocessor operations at the most elementary level. As a result, the power of a microprogrammed instruction set is limited only by the amount of control storage available and the capabilities of the microprocessor's arithmetic/logic unit. In fact, when sufficient control storage is available, microprogramming need not be limited to the development of a simple instruction set. Those operations which are used most frequently, or require minimum execution time, can be implemented as microprogrammed subroutines. Regardless of whether or not the microprocessor chosen for the PDCP has a microprogrammable instruction set, PDCP operations which are not included in the

machine's basic instruction set can be implemented using assembly language programming. Examples of assembly language subroutines which could be included in the library of the editor/translator program are presented in the following section.

4.4 PDCP PROGRAM EXAMPLES

The hardwired logic control units used in most current DCP designs perform four basic tasks: data input, elementary sensor control, data formatting, and transmitter control. In this section, example programs are presented to demonstrate the ability of a microprocessor based control unit to perform each of these tasks. These example programs show that, even when a microprocessor based control unit is used to perform all basic DCP tasks, excess computational capability exists. This capability can be used for data preprocessing or special computations which would reduce the load on the satellite data link. Fourier analysis of seismic data is presented as a potential special computation. Examples of data preprocessing subroutines are also shown.

Unless otherwise indicated, the programs listed in the following sections have been written to be executed on the 8080A-based PDCP demonstration system (see Section 5). Standard Intel Corporation 8080A mnemonics [2] have been used except within macroinstructions. Instructions such as NOP and MOV A,A are sometimes used to produce a required delay without otherwise affecting program execution. Macro delay instructions have been defined so that this usage of an instruction will be clear within the context of the program. The mnemonic DLY XX is used for these macroinstruction groups. The decimal number which replaces XX indicates the length of the delay in states. Since the assembly language program listings were produced using a PDP 11/40 minicomputer, constants and addresses are represented as octal numbers except as noted by the use of a decimal point.

4.4.1 Data Input and Sensor Control

Data input and elementary sensor control are two of the four basic tasks performed by the hardwired control logic currently used in most

DCP designs. A microprocessor based control unit is ideally suited to performing these tasks. Each PDCP sensor can be serviced by a simple subroutine which provides the functions of data input and sensor control. Because of the versatility of the microprocessor, the cost and complexity of the data acquisition channels can potentially be reduced without a significant increase in control logic. Subroutines which demonstrate microprocessor control of the data input and sensor control functions are listed below.

4.4.1.1 Frequency Measurement - Many sensors currently in use on DCP's produce an output signal whose frequency is proportional to the parameter of interest (temperature or air pressure for example). Program 4.4.1.1(1) has been developed to demonstrate that a PDCP can digitize the output of these sensors directly. A flow chart for Program 4.4.1.1(1) is illustrated in Figure 4.4.1.1(1). This frequency counter program is presented in the form of a subroutine which is suitable for use as an input block operation in the programming system described in Section 4.3.1. The sensor output signal is input to the microprocessor on one bit of input port zero. Signal frequency is determined by counting 0 to 1 logic level transitions for a preset interval of time. Two parameters, the number of samples to be taken and the input bit assigned to the sensor, are passed to the subroutine from the calling program. The input bit assignment for the sensor is specified by a mask byte in register C. This byte contains a one in the bit position corresponding to the bit position of the input signal and zero's in all other bits. Thus, a single frequency counter subroutine can service up to eight sensors without multiplexing. The number of samples to be taken is specified by the contents of register pair DE. Since the number of samples is proportional to the measurement interval, the resolution and scale factor of the digitization process are determined by the number of samples taken. With a measurement interval of one second, the sensor frequency is measured directly in units of Hertz (Hz). The binary output is returned to the calling program in register pair DE.

The sampling interval establishes an upper bound on the frequency which can be measured using this subroutine. A minimum sampling interval

ADDRESS	INSTR	OPERAND	COMMENT
000024	MOV	C,A	STORE SAMPLE IN C
000024	DCX	D	DECREMENT TIME COUNT
000025	MOV	A,E	CHECK FOR ZERO IN DE
000026	ORA	D	
000027	JNZ	CO	NOT ZERO TIME OUT SO SAMPLE AGAIN
000030	XCHG	H	PUT COUNT FROM HL INTO DE
000033	POP	B	RESTORE CPU STATUS
000034	RET		RETURN TO EXECUTIVE
000035	DLY14		ADD DELAY SO THREE PATHS ARE
000037	JMP	C1	EQUAL TIME WISE
000041			
000042			
000042			
000045			

Program 4.4.1.1(1) (continued)

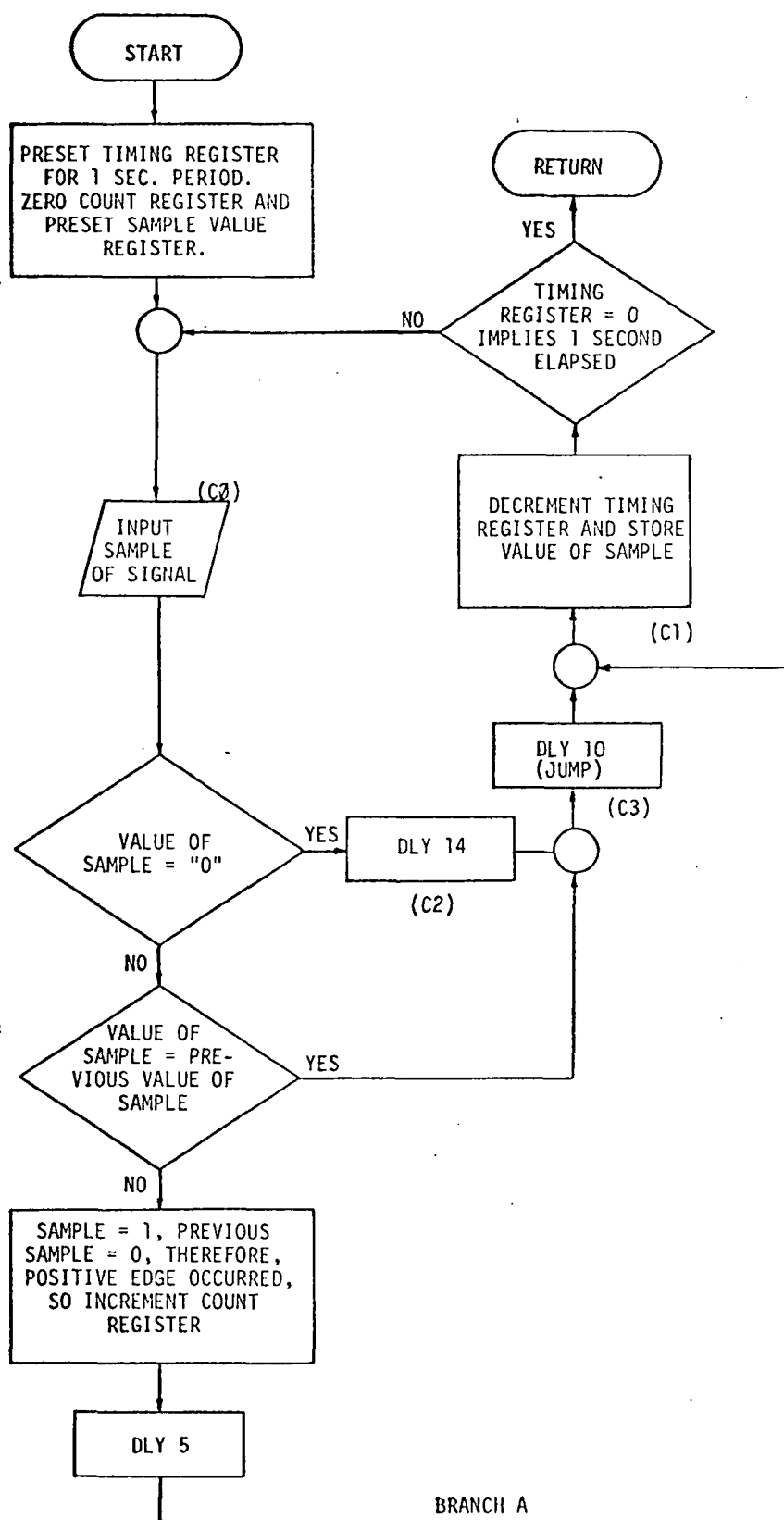


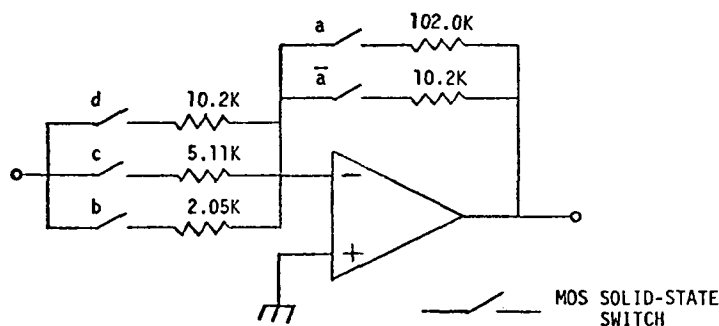
Figure 4.4.1.1(1) Flow Chart for Frequency Sensor Input Subroutine.

is desirable, but the interval must be constant. As shown in Figure 4.4.1.1(1), the program executes one of three branches depending upon the value of the current and the preceding sample. The longest natural program branch (Branch A) occurs when a positive signal transition is detected. Delay must be added to the other two program loops so that all three loops will execute in the same number of states. Unfortunately, arbitrary delays are not possible because the microprocessor is synchronized to a constant frequency clock. As a result, a minimum delay of five states must be added to Branch A so that the execution time of all three branches can be equalized.

Program 4.4.1.1(1) requires 77 states between samples of the input signal. Each state is a minimum of 500 nsec for an 8080A microprocessor or 325 nsec for a high speed 8080A-1 microprocessor. Thus, the maximum sampling frequencies are 25,974 Hz and 39,960 Hz, respectively. From the sampling theorem [3], these sampling frequencies establish upper bounds on the input signal frequencies of 12,987 Hz and 19,980 Hz, respectively. Frequency prescaling will be required for sensors which produce higher output frequencies.

4.4.1.2 Autorangeing - In some PDCP applications, the parameter of interest is a relatively slowly changing function of time which can vary over a wide range. The design of an accurate data acquisition channel for parameters of this type is difficult because linearity must be maintained over a wide dynamic range. If the data acquisition channel gain is set to produce a detectable signal level for the minimum sensor output, the later stages of the data acquisition channel may saturate as the sensor output increases. A solution to this problem is to vary the gain of the data acquisition channel so that the signal is always within the most linear and accurate system dynamic range. This can be accomplished by including a logarithmic amplifier in the front end of the data channel. The logarithmic amplifier, however, introduces a log conformity error which is unsatisfactory for systems requiring high resolution throughout the voltage range. In addition, the logarithmic scaling of the digitized data is inconvenient for most PDCP data preprocessing subroutines. These problems can be avoided by using a variable gain amplifier in place of the logarithmic amplifier.

The concept of a microprocessor-controlled variable gain amplifier is illustrated in Figure 4.4.1.2(1). A block-diagram of a typical data acquisition system using the variable gain amplifier is shown in Figure 4.4.1.2(2). Channel 1 is designed to acquire data from a sensor which produces a slowly varying, wide-range (200:1) output voltage. This signal is digitized by the analog-to-digital converter and input to the PDCP's microprocessor. Program 4.4.1.2(1) controls data acquisition on Channel 1. A flow chart for Program 4.4.1.2(1) is shown in Figure 4.4.1.2(3). Each time the executive PDCP program calls the data acquisition subroutine for Channel 1, a sample is obtained. If the sample is between 10 percent and 90 percent of full scale, the value of the sample and a code representing the current channel gain are stored in memory for later transmission. Whenever the sample is not within the ideal range of 10 percent - 90 percent of full scale, the gain of the amplifier is adjusted and another sample is obtained. Thus, a maximum system accuracy and an eight-bit resolution are maintained over a 200:1 dynamic range.



NOMINAL GAIN	CONTROL SIGNALS abcd
-1	0001
-2	0010
-3	0011
-6	0100
-7	0110
-10	1001
-20	1010
-30	1011
-50	1100
-70	1110

Figure 4.4.1.2(1) Microprocessor-Controlled Variable-Gain Amplifier.

000044	311						
000045	026			MVI	D, 01		
000046	031			CMP	D		; CHECK FOR GAIN=-1
000047	272			JZ	STORE		; STORE PREVIOUSLY SAMPLED DATA IF TRUE
000050	312	000		DCR	L		; IF NOT, DECREASE GAIN AND SAMPLE
000053	055			JMP	SAMPLE		; AGAIN
000054	303	000		MVI	D, 051		
000057	026			CMP	D		; CHECK FOR GAIN=-70
000061	272			JZ	STORE		; STORE PREVIOUSLY SAMPLED DATA IF TRUE
000062	312	000		INR	L		; IF NOT, INCREASE GAIN AND SAMPLE
000065	054			JMP	SAMPLE		; AGAIN
000066	303	000					

Program 4.4.1.2(1) (continued)

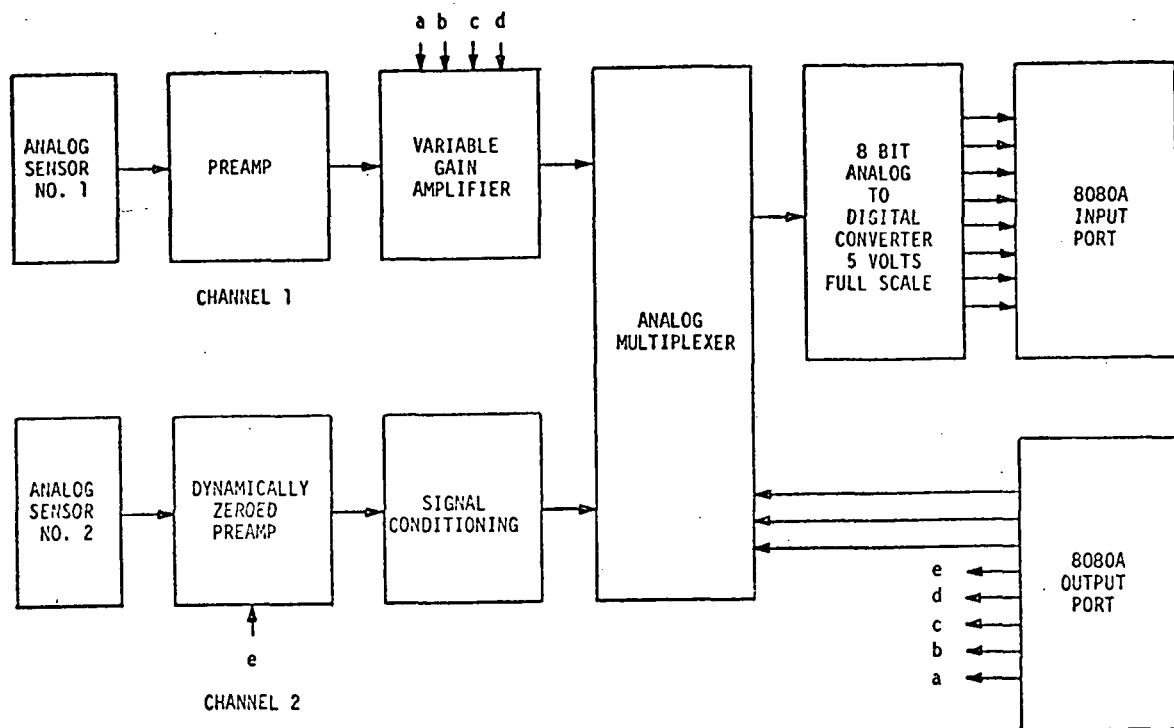


Figure 4.4.1.2(2) Analog Data Acquisition System for a PDCP.

4.4.1.3 Software Controlled Analog-to-Digital Conversion - The traditional analog-to-digital converter (ADC) consists of a digital-to-analog converter, a comparator, and some control logic. A digital word loaded into the digital-to-analog converter (DAC) produces an analog output signal (voltage or current) which is applied to one input of the comparator. The second comparator input is the analog signal which is to be digitized. The comparator output signal indicates whether the analog input is greater than or less than the reference signal produced by the DAC. This signal is fed back to the control logic which uses a fixed algorithm to update the DAC input. The above process continues until the DAC output equals the analog signal input. At that point, the digital word in the DAC is the digital representation of the analog input voltage.

A number of different algorithms can be employed in the analog-to-digital conversion process but one of the most widely used is successive approximation. In a successive approximation ADC, the unknown analog

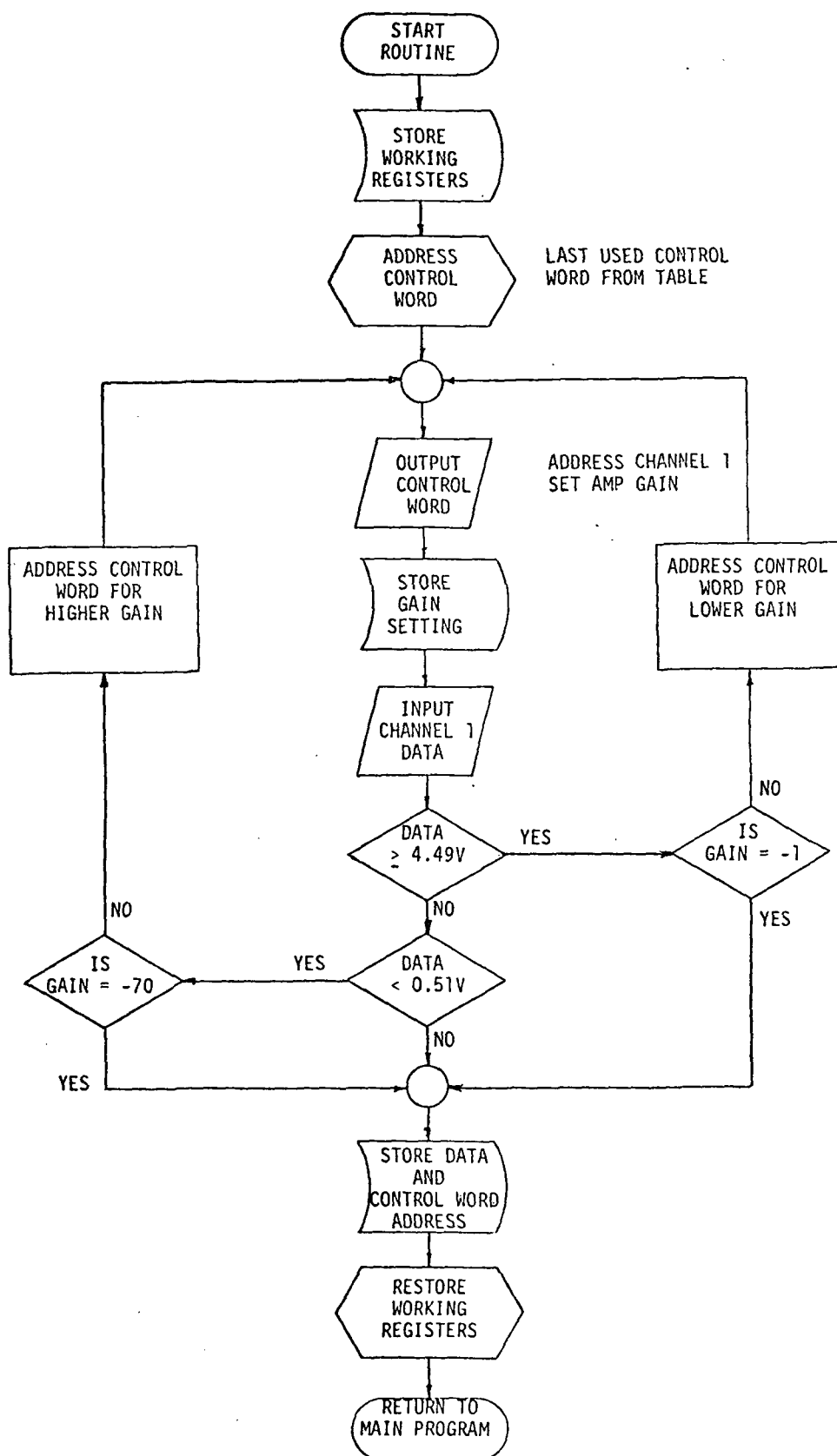


Figure 4.4.1.2(3) Flow Chart for Variable Gain Amplifier Control Program.

input is compared to the DAC output with only the most significant bit (MSB) true. This DAC output corresponds to one-half of full scale. If the input is greater than the MSB, the MSB is left in the logical "1" or true state and the next bit (which corresponds to one-quarter of full scale) is set to a logical "1". If the second bit does not cause the DAC output to exceed the unknown analog input, it is left in the logical "1" state and the next bit is set to "1". If the second bit causes the DAC output to exceed the unknown analog signal, it is set back to a logical "0" as the next bit is set to a logical "1" for another comparison. This process continues in order of descending bit weight until the proper state of the last bit has been determined. At that time the digital input to the DAC represents the correct digitization of the previously unknown analog voltage or current.

All of the digital control logic normally found in the successive approximation ADC can be replaced by a software subroutine using the microprocessor. Program 4.4.1.3(1) is a successive approximation analog-to-digital conversion subroutine written for the UT PDCP development system. A flow chart for this program is illustrated in Figure 4.4.1.3(2) and a simplified schematic of the ADC hardware used in the development system is shown in Figure 4.4.1.3(3).

The successive approximation subroutine uses only 34 bytes of ROM and six bytes of RAM. As currently implemented, the analog-to-digital conversion requires a fixed time of 748 states. For a standard 8080A operating with a 2-MHz clock, this corresponds to 2673 conversions per second, a rate which should be more than satisfactory for the PDCP application.

4.4.2 Data Compaction and Preprocessing

The amount of data which must be handled by data collection satellites is constantly increasing. The major factors contributing to this increase are the use of high sampling-rate sensors and a general growth in the number of DCP's. PDCP's can be expected to contribute substantially to the increase in remote data collection activities by opening new areas of application. In addition to taxing the bandwidth limits of

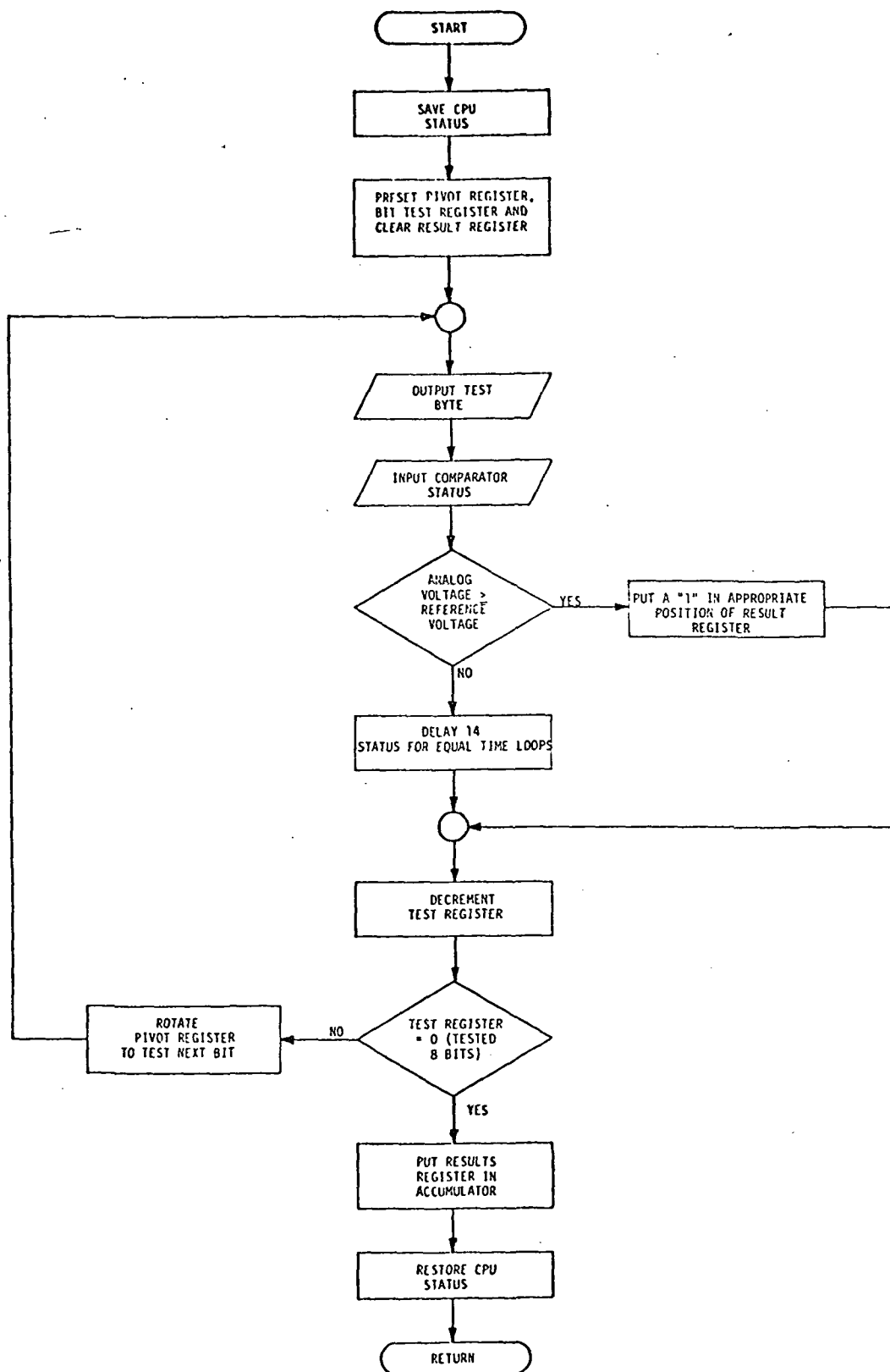


Figure 4.4.1.3(1) Flow Chart for Successive Approximation ADC Subroutine.

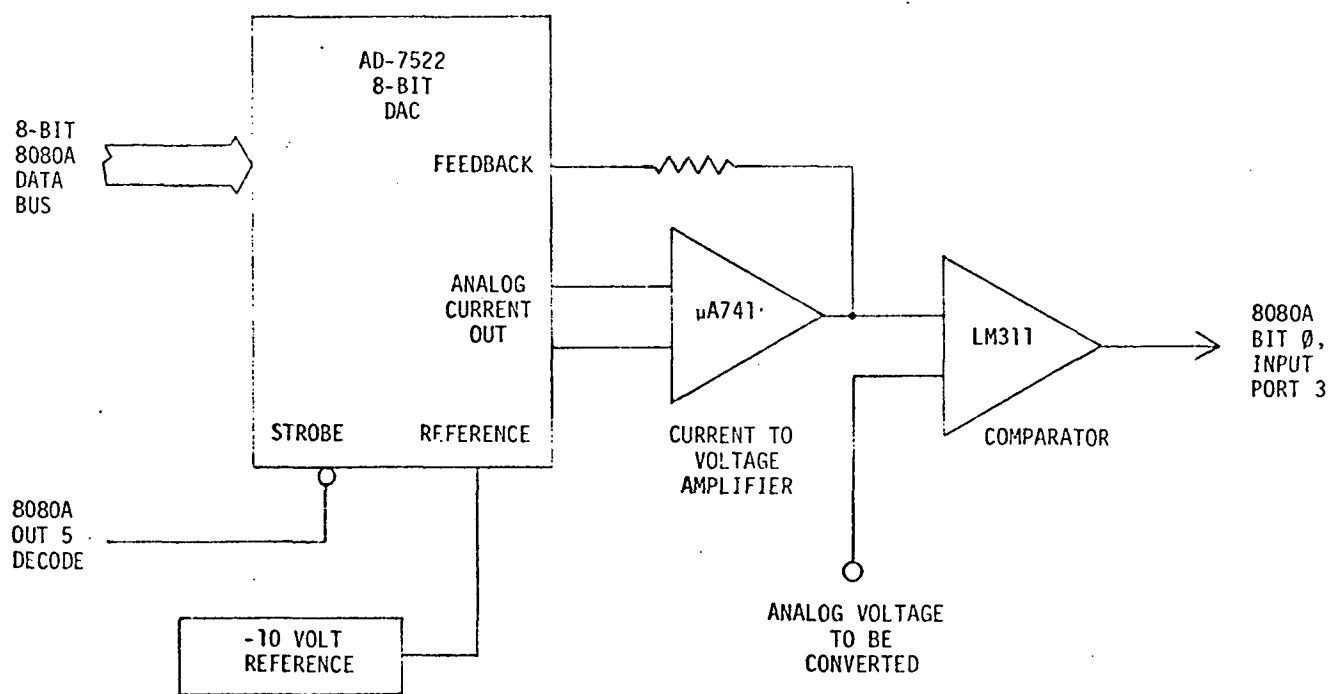


Figure 4.4.1.3(2) Simplified Schematic of the ADC Hardware.

present data collection satellites, significant increases in data flow would require corresponding increases in the capacity of present ground-to-ground communication lines, data storage areas, and data processing facilities. Therefore, techniques should be developed for reducing the volume of data flow without significantly reducing the amount of information acquired.

One of the most useful ways to reduce data flow to manageable proportions is to apply compression or compaction before the data is transmitted from the PDCP. There are two basic types of data compression techniques: entropy-reducing and information-preserving [4]. Entropy-reducing algorithms perform an irreversible transformation on the input data and therefore cause a pre-transmission loss of some information. Information-preserving algorithms perform a reversible transformation on the input data. As a result, the information carried by the original data can be recovered within a specified allowable tolerance or peak error. Bit compaction rates of two-to-one can normally be achieved by information-preserving algorithms. Much higher degrees of data compaction can be obtained by using entropy-reducing algorithms.

Data compaction techniques have not been employed in previous DCP designs because of the extra hardware and expense involved in hardwired implementations of the algorithms. Many data compression algorithms, however, can be economically used with PDCP's. In most cases, the only additional hardware required to provide data compression capabilities will be the memory used to store subroutine implementations of the various data compression algorithms. Data compression subroutines are excellent candidates for the subroutine library within the applications-oriented PDCP programming system (see Section 4.3.1). Several examples of data compression programs are presented in the following sections.

4.4.2.1 General-Purpose Binary Math Package - Most data compression algorithms are based upon mathematical operations. Therefore, a general-purpose binary math package has been developed for use in data compaction operations. The math package consists of subroutines which perform the unsigned binary operations specified in Table 4.4.2.1(1). Unsigned binary format is assumed since PDCP data will usually be represented in this

TABLE 4.4.2.1(1)

GENERAL PURPOSE PDCP BINARY MATH PACKAGE

Basic Operation	Form (Allowable Number Size In Bytes)	Memory Requirements In Bytes		Execution Time In States (N=Number of Bytes)	Subroutine Title
		Program Storage (ROM)	Stack (RAM)		
ADDITION	Double Precision (2+2→2)	11	2	83	DADDM
	Short Multiprecision (2+4→4)	20	4	141	SMADD
	Multiprecision ([1-256]+[1-256]→[1-256])	17	10	56N+95	MADD
SUBTRACTION	Double Precision (2+2→2)	11	2	83	DSUBM
	Short Multiprecision (2+4→4)	20	4	141	SMSUB
	Multiprecision ([1-256]+[1-256]→[1-256])	17	10	56N+95	MSUB
MULTIPLICATION	Double Precision (2x2→4)	73	14	4683-4843	DPMULT
DIVISION	Double Precision (4÷2→2)	64	8	3645-8456	DPDIV
SQUARE ROOT	Double Precision ($\sqrt{2} \rightarrow 1$)	84	14	4336-4746	SQRT

TABLE 4.4.2.1(1) (Continued)

Basic Operation	(Allowable Number Size In Bytes)	Memory Requirements In Bytes		Execution Time In States (N=Number of Bytes)	Subroutine Title
		Program Storage (ROM)	Stack (RAM)		
COMPARISON	Double Precision (2-2)	12	4	62-73	DCMPM
	Multiprecision ([1-256]-[1-256])	54	10	110N+108	MCMP
MEMORY-TO-MEMORY MOVE	Multiprecision ([1-256]MOVE TO[1-256])	15	10	49N+91	MOVE
SUBROUTINE EXIT RESTORING ALL STATUS	POPS ALL STATUS	5	-	60	EXIT

form. Listings of the math package subroutines are provided as Programs A(1) through A(12) in Appendix A.

The most important PDCP math subroutines (addition and subtraction) are available in three formats: double precision (numbers up to 16 bits long), short multiprecision (mixed 16-bit and 32-bit number operations), and multiprecision (numbers up to 2048 bits long). This allows the PDCP programmer to consider memory requirements, execution time, and operand resolution in selecting the best subroutine for a particular task. Most PDCP data words will be eight to ten bits long and can most appropriately be manipulated using the double precision subroutines. The short multiprecision subroutines supplement the double precision subroutines and are intended for use in operations such as summing a large number of data points where the result could overflow 16 bits (i.e., a result greater than 65,535). Short multiprecision and double precision subroutines should be sufficient for PDCP data compaction operations. Multiprecision subroutines capable of operating on numbers up to 256 bytes long are provided primarily to illustrate that numbers of any magnitude can be processed by a microprocessor based PDCP if sufficient calculation time is available.

The comparison, multiplication, division, and square-root subroutines permit significant data compaction operations such as data averaging to be performed by the PDCP. Since a special square-root algorithm developed by Kostopoulos [5] was implemented, a flow chart for the square-root subroutine is shown in Figure 4.4.2.1(1). The MOVE subroutine is provided for transferring multiprecision data blocks between temporary storage and working memory areas when using multiprecision arithmetic subroutines. EXIT is a general purpose block of code which is used to restore all CPU status when returning from selected subroutines. The complete binary math package is 403 bytes long and would occupy only 40 percent of a 8K ROM.

Normally, a PDCP will not require all of the subroutines listed in Table 4.4.2.1(1). A basic math package consisting of double and short multiprecision addition and subtraction, double precision compare, and EXIT would be sufficient for elementary data compaction operations. This

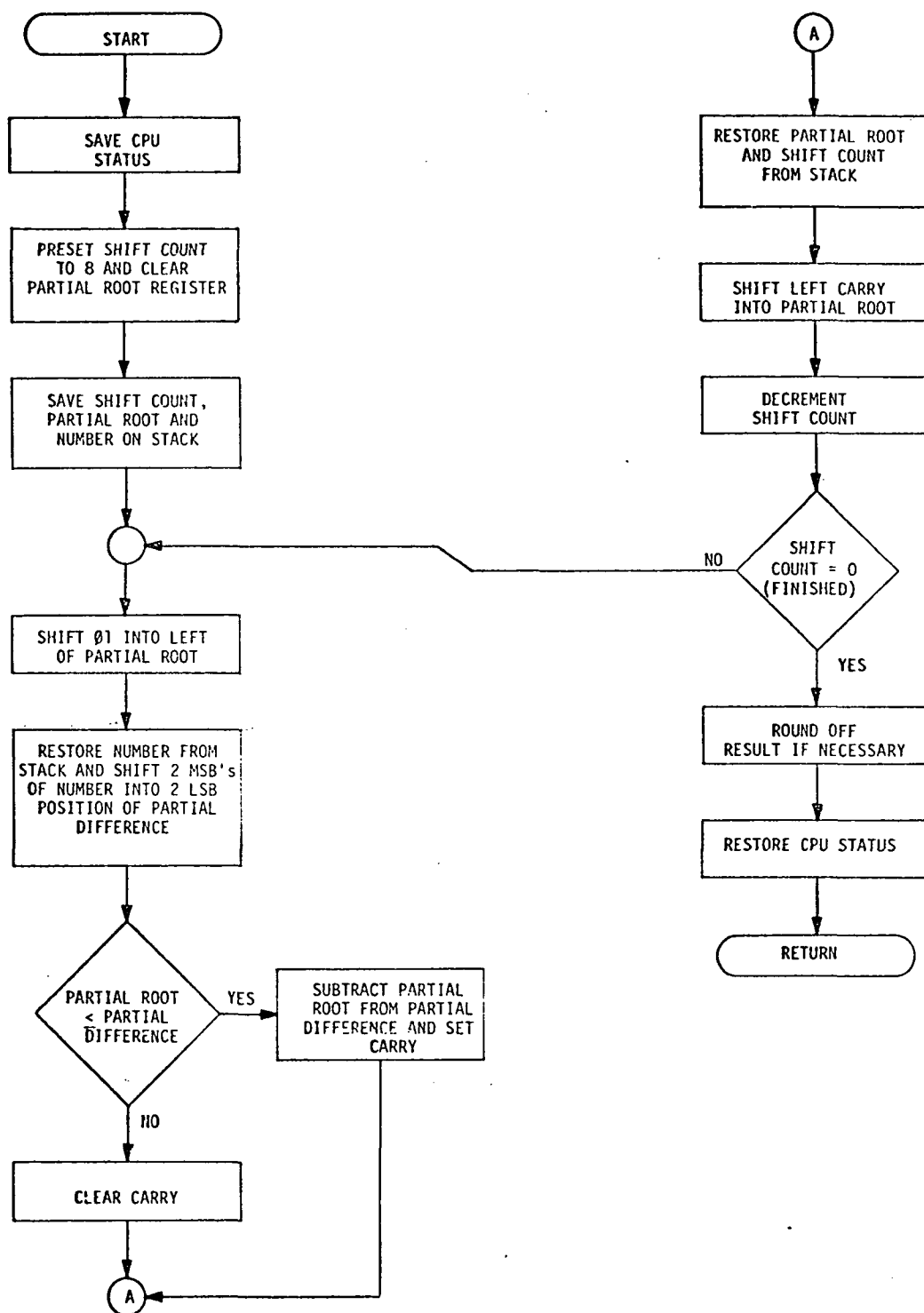


Figure 4.4.2.1(1) Flow Chart for Square Root Subroutine.

basic math package can be stored in 79 bytes of ROM. Multiplication and division can be added to the basic math package to support more advanced data compaction operations such as data averaging. A total of 216 bytes are required to store this form of the math package. Standard deviation calculations require the addition of a square-root subroutine which increases the memory storage area used by the extended version of the basic math package to 300 bytes. Execution times of the PDCP binary math subroutines are shown in Table 4.4.2.1(2).

4.4.2.2 Determination of Minimum and Maximum Data Values - Program 4.4.2.2(1) is an entropy-reducing data compaction subroutine which determines the minimum and maximum data samples obtained from a sensor over a particular time interval. The DMINMAX program uses the double precision compare subroutine from the binary math package and operates on numbers up to 16 bits long. Each time the DMINMAX routine is called by the PDCP executive program, the value of a new data point is compared to previously established upper and lower bounds. The carry and zero flags indicate the result of this comparison. If the new data point is outside one of the boundaries, the data point is stored as a new boundary. Therefore, just prior to transmission, the upper and lower bounds will represent the minimum and maximum data samples obtained since the last transmission. Program 4.4.2.2(1) is 29 bytes long and requires eight bytes of RAM for stack operations. Worst case execution time is 264 states which would permit a data rate of over 7,500 samples per second.

A multiprecision MINMAX subroutine is listed as Program 4.4.2.2(2). The MINMAX program uses two subroutines from the multiprecision binary math package and operates on numbers up to 256 bytes long. The value of a memory location named TMCODE indicates the result of the MINMAX program execution. Program 4.4.2.2(2) is 120 bytes long and requires 20 bytes of RAM for stack operations. These figures include the required multi-byte COMPARE and MEMORY-TO-MEMORY MOVE subroutines from the math package.

4.4.2.3 Zero-Order Floating Aperture Predictor - A potentially more useful data compression algorithm is implemented in Program 4.4.2.3(1). The zero-order floating aperture predictor algorithm is an information-preserving polynomial data compression technique [4]. The algorithm is

TABLE 4.4.2.1(2)

BINARY MATH SUBROUTINE EXECUTION TIMES

Operation	Number Size (8-bit Bytes)	States	Execution Time	
			Microseconds Using 500-nsec 8080A	Microseconds Using 325-nsec 8080A-1
ADD	2	83	41.5	26.98
	2,4	141	70.5	45.83
	N	95+56N	47.5+28N	30.88+18.2N
SUBTRACT	2	83	41.5	26.98
	2,4	141	70.5	45.83
	N	95+56N	47.5+28N	30.88+18.2N
COMPARE	2	62-73	31.0-36.5	20.15-23.73
	N	108+110N	54.0+55N	35.1+35.75N
MULTIPLY	2	4683-4843	2341.5-2421.5	1521.98-1573.98
DIVIDE	2,4	3645-8456	1822.5-4228	1184.63-2748.20
SQUARE ROOT	2	4336-4746	2168-2373	1409.20-1542.45
MOVE	N	91+49N	45.5+24.5N	29.58+15.93N
EXIT	-	60	30	19.5


```

, MULTI-PRECISION
, MINIMUM-MAXIMUM VALUE DETERMINATION SUBROUTINE
,
, THIS SUBROUTINE COMPARES THE VALUE OF A NEW DATA POINT (ND)
, TO UPPER (UB) AND LOWER (LB) BOUNDS. IF ND<LB, THE VAL...
, UE OF ND BECOMES THE NEW LOWER BOUND. IF ND>UB, THE
, VALUE OF UB BECOMES THE NEW UPPER BOUND. A FLAG
, IS SET TO INDICATE THE RESULT OF THE COMPARISONS
, AND THE EXECUTION TIME OF THE SUBROUTINE. ALL
, NUMBERS ARE ASSUMED TO BE IN UNSIGNED BINARY
, FORMAT.
,
, (A) = # BYTES / NUMBER. SPECIFY TO GUARANTEE NO
, OVERFLOW ON ADDITION.
, (BC) = ADDRESS OF NEW DATA POINT'S LEAST SIG BYTE
, (HL) = ADDRESS OF UPPER BOUND LEAST SIGNIFICANT BYTE.
, THE LEAST SIG BYTE OF THE LOWER BOUND MUST BE
, STORED IMMEDIATELY ABOVE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT
, BYTE OF THE UPPER BOUND.
,
, ALL DATA WORDS IN MEMORY ARE ASSUMED TO BE STORED IN ASCEND...
, MEMORY LOCATIONS BEGINNING AT THE ADDRESSES SPECIFIED ABOVE.
,
, THIS SUBROUTINE SAVES AND LATER RETURNS THE MACHINE STATUS.
, TMCODE IS USED AS A FLAG BYTE. ON RETURN, TMCODE=0 IF THE
, NEW DATA IS BETWEEN THE BOUNDS.
,
, TMCODE = 1 IF NEW DATA IS GREATER THAN THE UPPER BOUND
, TMCODE = 2 IF NEW DATA IS LESS THAN THE LOWER BOUND
,
, THIS SUBROUTINE DOES NOT ALTER THE VALUE OR LOCATION OF THE
, NEW DATA POINT. EXECUTION TIME IS A FUNCTION OF TMCODE
, AND THE NUMBER OF BYTES PER NUMBER AS DEFINED BELOW:
,
, IF TMCODE = 0 THEN T = 262*A+414
, IF TMCODE = 1 THEN T = 159*A+380
, IF TMCODE = 2 THEN T = 262*A+510
, WHERE T = EXECUTION TIME IN STATES
,
, TMCODE = 17776 ; TIME CODE STORAGE BYTE LOCATION

```

```

000000
000000
000000
000001
000001
000002
000002
000003
000003

```

MINMAX:

```

PUSH PSW ; SAVE CPU STATUS
PUSH B
PUSH D
PUSH H

```

```

045
005
025
045

```

Program 4.4.2.2(2) Multi-Precision Minimum-Maximum Value Determination.

Program 4.4.2.2(2) (continued)

```

000004      MOV     E,A      ; SAVE NUMBER OF BYTES PER NUMBER IN E
000004      CALL    MCOMP     ; COMPARE NEW DATA (ND) POINT TO UPPER BOUND (UB)
000005      DCR     D         ; DECREMENT D TWICE TO SET CONDITIONS FOR FLAG REGISTER D
000010      DCR     D
000011      JZ      DR        ; JUMP IF NDDUB
000012      MVI     D,0       ; 0 ----> D
000015      DAD     D         ; OTHERWISE (DE) + (HL) ----> (HL), NOW CHLD = LB
000017      CALL    MCOMP     ; COMPARE ND TO LOWER BOUND (LB)
000020      DCR     D         ; DECREMENT TO TEST FLAG REGISTER D
000023      JZ      UR        ; JUMP IF NDCLB, OTHERWISE ND IS WITHIN BOUNDS
000024      MVI     A,0       ; 0 ----> A
000027      STA     TMCODE    ; ZERO THE EXECUTION TIME REGISTER
000031      JMP     EXIT      ; AND EXIT ROUTINE
000034      DR:
000037      MVI     A,1       ; 1 ----> A SINCE NDDUB
000037      JMP     UR+2      ; CONTINUE AT UR+2
000041      MVI     A,2       ; 2 ----> A SINCE NDCLB
000044      STA     TMCODE    ; STORE A AS TIME CODE INDICATING EXECUTION
000046      MOV     A,E        ; TIME AND RESULT
000051      CALL    MOVE      ; #BYTES/NUMBER ----> A
000052      JMP     EXIT      ; MOVE ND TO LOCATION RESERVED FOR UB
000055      ; GO TO EXIT ROUTINE
000055
000004      MOV     E,A      ; SAVE NUMBER OF BYTES PER NUMBER IN E
000004      CALL    MCOMP     ; COMPARE NEW DATA (ND) POINT TO UPPER BOUND (UB)
000005      DCR     D         ; DECREMENT D TWICE TO SET CONDITIONS FOR FLAG REGISTER D
000010      DCR     D
000011      JZ      DR        ; JUMP IF NDDUB
000012      MVI     D,0       ; 0 ----> D
000015      DAD     D         ; OTHERWISE (DE) + (HL) ----> (HL), NOW CHLD = LB
000017      CALL    MCOMP     ; COMPARE ND TO LOWER BOUND (LB)
000020      DCR     D         ; DECREMENT TO TEST FLAG REGISTER D
000023      JZ      UR        ; JUMP IF NDCLB, OTHERWISE ND IS WITHIN BOUNDS
000024      MVI     A,0       ; 0 ----> A
000027      STA     TMCODE    ; ZERO THE EXECUTION TIME REGISTER
000031      JMP     EXIT      ; AND EXIT ROUTINE
000034      DR:
000037      MVI     A,1       ; 1 ----> A SINCE NDDUB
000037      JMP     UR+2      ; CONTINUE AT UR+2
000041      MVI     A,2       ; 2 ----> A SINCE NDCLB
000044      STA     TMCODE    ; STORE A AS TIME CODE INDICATING EXECUTION
000046      MOV     A,E        ; TIME AND RESULT
000051      CALL    MOVE      ; #BYTES/NUMBER ----> A
000052      JMP     EXIT      ; MOVE ND TO LOCATION RESERVED FOR UB
000055      ; GO TO EXIT ROUTINE
000055

```


000510	ENDJ:	INX	D	; POINT DE TO LS BYTE OF UB BY INCREMENTING TWICE
000510				
000511		INX	D	
000512		CALL	DADDM	; ADD TOLERANCE TO ND AND STORE AS NEW UB
000512	000			
000515		JNC	EXZF	; JUMP IF NO OVERFLOW OCCURRED
000515	001			
000520		MV1	A,377	; SET ACC TO ALL ONES
000520				
000522		CALL	LMEM	; OVERFLOW ---- 30 SET UB TO 65535
000522				
000525		POP	PSW	; GET FLAGS BACK TO INDICATE RESULT OF ZOFAP
000525	001			
000525		EXZF:		
000526		XCHG		; DE <----> HL
000526				
000527		RET		; RETURN
000527				
000530		STAX	D	; STORE CONSTANT IN ACC IN MEMORY
000530				
000531		INX	D	; INCREMENT POINTER
000531				
000532		STAX	D	; STORE SAME CONSTANT IN ADJACENT MEMORY LOCATION
000532				
000532		DCX	D	; RESTORE DE BY DECREMENTING
000532				
000533		RET		; RETURN
000533				
000534		XRA	A	; SET Z=1
000534				
000535		RET		; RETURN
000535				
000536				
000536				

Program 4.4.2.3(1) (continued)

based on the prediction that later data samples will be within a specified tolerance of the first sample. If this prediction is true, the data sample is considered redundant and should not be transmitted. The first sample which is not within the specified tolerance is flagged for transmission and becomes the new reference point for subsequent predictions. The result of the comparison is indicated by the states of the zero and carry flags after the program has been executed. The zero flag must be tested first to avoid incorrect results. A flow chart for the zero-order floating aperture predictor subroutine is illustrated in Figure 4.4.2.3(1). This program is 56 bytes long and uses three subroutines from the binary math package requiring an additional 34 bytes. Six bytes of RAM are required for stack operations. At present, 100-piece CMOS ROM prices, the incremental component cost of providing the zero-order floating aperture predictor subroutine and the required math package subroutines as part of a standard PDCP ROM, is approximately \$7.21.* As shown in Section 4.4.3.2, the longest data formatting and transmitter control subroutine (GOES format) is 236 bytes long. Therefore, the double precision zero-order floating-aperture predictor algorithm and a transmitter subroutine would occupy only 32 percent of the capacity of an 8K bit ROM. The remaining 698 bytes of ROM should be sufficient to contain an executive program and several sensor data input and control subroutines. For example, the frequency sensor input subroutine [Program 4.4.1.1(1)] which is capable of serving eight different sensors requires only 36 additional bytes of ROM.

Program 4.4.2.3(2) is a multiprecision implementation of the zero-order floating-aperture predictor algorithm. A flow chart for this program is illustrated in Figure 4.4.2.3(2). Program execution times and

* For example, RCA's CDP1831CD 512 x 8 ROM with a 400 nsec access time and 0.5 mW typical quiescent power dissipation costs \$41.00 each for the first 100 devices, including the mask charge. Therefore,

$$\Delta \text{ Cost} = \frac{41.00}{512 \text{ bytes}} \times 90 \text{ bytes} = \$7.21.$$

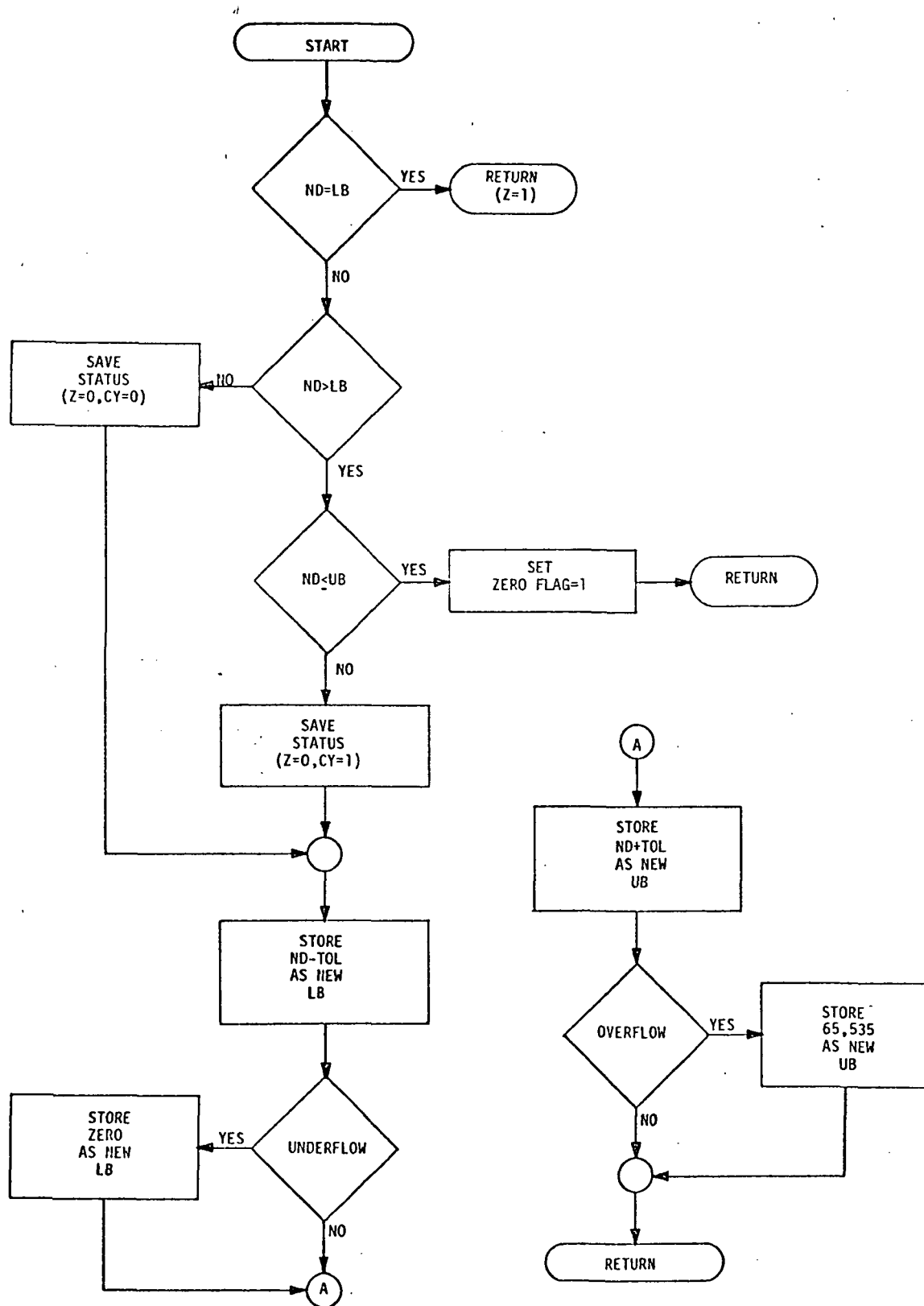


Figure 4.4.2.3(1) Flow Chart for the Double Precision Zero-Order Floating-Aperture Predictor Subroutine.

```

ZERO-ORDER FLOATING-APERTURE PREDICTOR SUBROUTINE
,
,
, THIS SUBROUTINE IMPLEMENTS THE ZERO-ORDER FLOATING-APERTURE
, PREDICTOR ALGORITHM USING AN 8080A MICROPROCESSOR. THIS
, IS AN INFORMATION PRESERVING POLYNOMIAL DATA COMPRESSION
, TECHNIQUE BASED ON THE PREDICTION THAT LATER SAMPLES
, WILL BE WITHIN A SPECIFIED TOLERANCE OF THE FIRST
, SAMPLE. IF THIS PREDICTION IS TRUE, THE DATA
, SAMPLE IS CONSIDERED REDUNDANT AND IS NOT
, TRANSMITTED. THE FIRST SAMPLE WHICH IS
, NOT WITHIN THE SPECIFIED TOLERANCE IS
, TRANSMITTED AND BECOMES THE NEW REF-
, ERENCE POINT FOR SUBSEQUENT PREDIC-
, TIONS. ALL NUMBERS ARE ASSUMED TO
, BE IN N-BYTE, UNSIGNED BINARY
, FORMAT:
,
, (A) = # BYTES / NUMBER. SPECIFY TO GUARANTEE NO
, OVERFLOW ON ADDITION.
, (BC) = ADDRESS OF NEW DATA POINT'S LEAST SIG BYTE
, (DE) = ADDRESS OF TOLERANCE LEAST SIGNIFICANT BYTE
, (HL) = ADDRESS OF UPPER BOUND LEAST SIGNIFICANT BYTE.
, THE LEAST SIG BYTE OF THE LOWER BOUND MUST BE
, STORED IMMEDIATELY ABOVE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT
, BYTE OF THE UPPER BOUND.
,
, ALL DATA WORDS IN MEMORY ARE ASSUMED TO BE STORED IN ASCEND-
, ING ORDER OF INCREASING ADDRESS. THE FOLLOWING ARE THE
, MEMORY LOCATIONS BEGINNING AT THE ADDRESSES SPECIFIED ABOVE.
,
, THIS SUBROUTINE SAVES AND LATER RETURNS THE MACHINE STATUS.
, TMCODE IS USED AS A FLAG BYTE. ON RETURN, TMCODE=0 IF THE
, NEW DATA POINT WAS REDUNDANT. TMCODE>0 IF THE NEW DATA POINT
, IS NOT REDUNDANT AND THEREFORE HAS BEEN ESTABLISHED AS THE
, NEW REFERENCE POINT. SPECIFICALLY:
,
, TMCODE = 1 IF NEW DATA IS GREATER THAN THE UPPER BOUND
, OF THE REFERENCE PLUS TOLERANCE
, TMCODE = 2 IF NEW DATA IS LESS THAN THE LOWER BOUND
, OF THE REFERENCE MINUS TOLERANCE
,
, THIS SUBROUTINE DOES NOT ALTER THE VALUE OR LOCATION OF THE
, NEW DATA POINT. EXECUTION TIME IS A FUNCTION OF TMCODE
, AND THE NUMBER OF BYTES PER NUMBER AS DEFINED BELOW:
,
, IF TMCODE = 0 THEN T = 220*A+414
, IF TMCODE = 1 THEN T = 320*A+771
, IF TMCODE = 2 THEN T = 430*A+201
, WHERE T = EXECUTION TIME IN STATES
, A = NUMBER OF BYTES PER NUMBER
,

```

```

017777
ORG 11000 ; START PROGRAM AT 4.5 K POINT
TMCODE= 17777 ; TIME CODE STORAGE BYTE LOCATION

ZOFAB:
011000 PUSH PSW ; SAVE CPU STATUS
011000
011000
011001 PUSH B
011001
011002 PUSH D
011002
011003 PUSH H
011003
011004 MOV E,A ; SAVE NUMBER OF BYTES PER NUMBER IN E
011004
011005 CALL MCMP ; COMPARE NEW DATA (ND) POINT TO UPPER BOUND (UB)
011005
011010 DCR D ; DECREMENT D TWICE TO SET CONDITIONS FOR FLAG REGISTER D
011010
011011 DCR D
011011
011012 JZ OR ; JUMP IF ND>UB
011012
011015 MVI D,0 ; 0 ----> D
011015
011017 DAD D ; OTHERWISE (DE) + (HL) ----> (HL), NOW <HL> = LB
011017
011020 CALL MCMP ; COMPARE ND TO LOWER BOUND (LB)
011020
011023 DCR D ; DECREMENT TO TEST FLAG REGISTER D
011023
011024 JZ UR ; JUMP IF ND<LB, OTHERWISE ND IS WITHIN TOLERANCE
011024
011027 MVI A,0 ; 0 ----> A
011027
011031 STA TMCODE ; ZERO THE EXECUTION TIME REGISTER
011031
011034 JMP EXIT ; AND EXIT ROUTINE
011034
011037 OR:
011037
011037 MVI A,1 ; 1 ----> A SINCE ND>UB
011037
011041 JMP UR+2 ; CONTINUE AT UR+2
011041
011041
042 020
037 022
042 020
044 022
000 000
377 037
147 020
001 001
046 022

```

Program 4.4.2.3(2) (continued)

011044	UR:								
011044		076	002	MVI	A,2	;	2 ----> A SINCE NDKLB		
011044				STA	TMCODE	;	STORE A AS TIME CODE INDICATING EXECUTION		
011046		062	377					037	
011051				MOV	A,E	;	TIME AND RESULT		
011051		173				;	#BYTES/NUMBER ----> A		
011052		341		POP	H	;	ADDRESS OF UB ----> (HL)		
011052				PUSH	H	;	SAVE ADDRESS ON STACK		
011053		345		CALL	MOVE	;	MOVE ND TO LOCATION RESERVED FOR UB		
011054		315	130					020	
011054				MVI	D,0	;	0 ----> D		
011057		026	000						
011061				DAD	D	;	(DE) + (HL) ----> (HL) SO <HL> = LB		
011061		031		CALL	MOVE	;	MOVE ND TO LOCATION RESERVED FOR LB		
011062		315	130					020	
011065		104		MOV	B,H	;	TRANSFER THE UPPER AND LOWER BYTES OF LB		
011066				MOV	C,L	;	ADDRESS TO (BC)		
011066		115		INX	SP	;	INCREMENT STACK POINTER TWICE TO POINT TO		
011067				INX	SP	;	LOCATION CONTAINING THE ADDRESS OF TOL		
011067		063		POP	H	;	GET TOL ADDRESS TO HL		
011070		063		PUSH	H	;	SAVE ADDRESS OF TOL ON STACK		
011071		341		DCX	SP	;	DECREMENT THE STACK POINTER TWICE TO		
011072		345		DCX	SP	;	RETURN TO ORIGINAL ADDRESS		
011073		073		CALL	MSUB	;	SUBTRACT TOL FROM ND AND STORE AS NEW LB		
011074		073							
011075		315	021	POP	B	;	ADDRESS OF LB ----> BC	020	
011100				PUSH	B	;	SAVE LB ON STACK		
011101		305		CALL	MADD	;	ADD TOL TO ND AND STORE AS THE NEW UB		
011102		315	000	JMP	EXIT	;	RESTORE MACHINE STATUS AND RETURN TO	020	
011105		303	147			;	EXECUTIVE PROGRAM.	020	
011105									
011110				END					

Program 4.4.2.3(2) (continued)

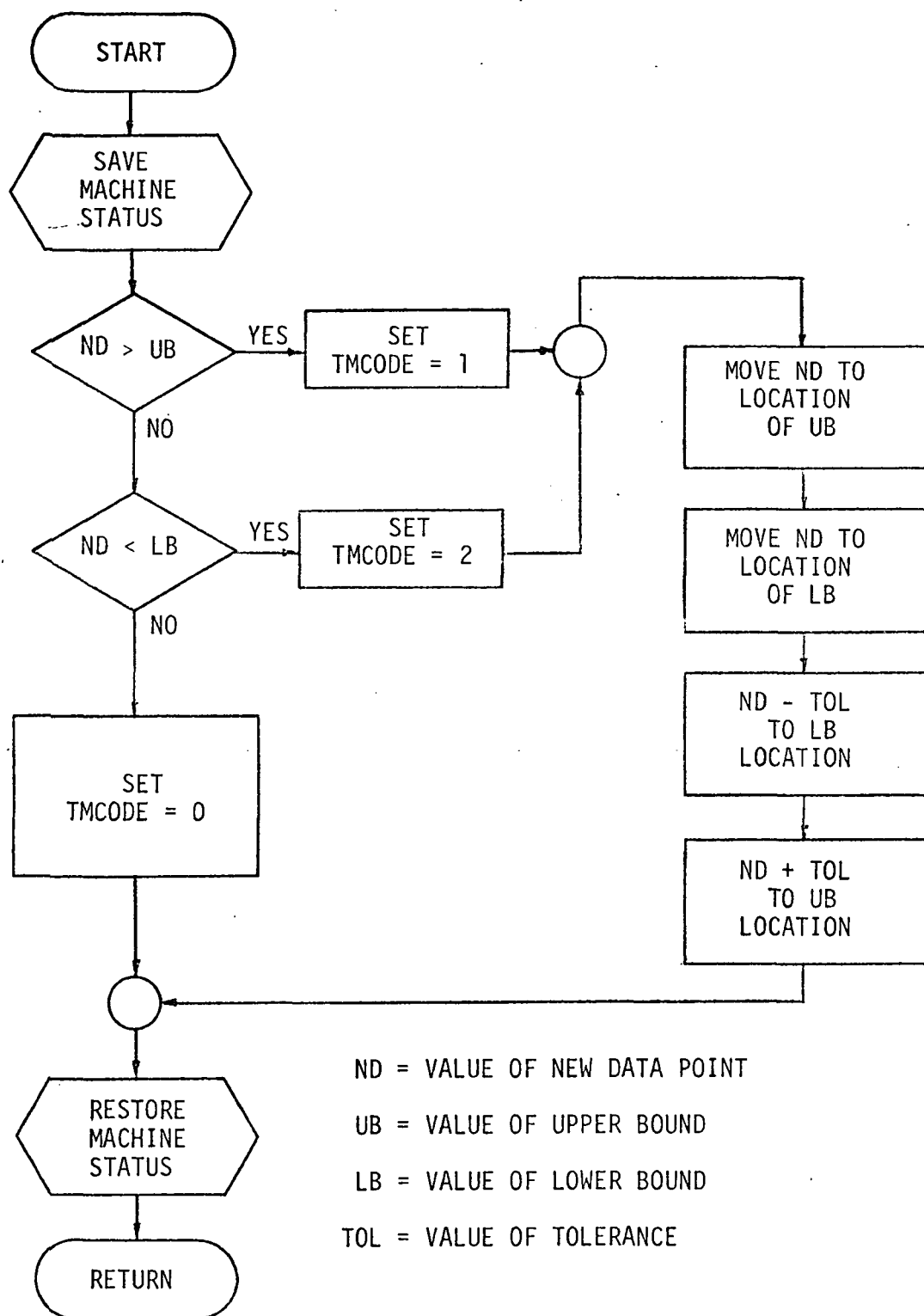


Figure 4.4.2.3(2) Flow Chart for the Multiprecision Zero-Order Floating Aperture Predictor Subroutine.

the results of the multiprecision zero-order floating-aperture predictor subroutine are indicated by the value returned in the memory location called TMCODE. This program is 71 bytes long and uses four subroutines from the multiprecision binary math package for a minimum storage requirement of 178 bytes. Twenty bytes of RAM are required for stack operations.

4.4.2.4 Data Average - Data averaging is one useful form of data preprocessing which can easily be performed by a PDCP. Normally two distinct subroutines will be used to obtain the average value of a set of N data points. A data accumulation subroutine such as Program 4.4.2.4(1) will be called each time a data sample is obtained. When the average value of the data is desired, a final data averaging subroutine will be called. As illustrated by the flow chart in Figure 4.4.2.4(1), the data accumulation subroutine will simply increment the sample count (N) and add the new sample to the previous sum of samples. Program 4.4.2.4(1) can process up to 65,535 samples of 16-bit sensor data while using only 18 bytes of ROM and 10 bytes of stack.

Program 4.4.2.4(2) is an example of a data averaging subroutine. A flow chart for this program is shown in Figure 4.4.2.4(2). The data averaging subroutine calls the short multiprecision divide routine to divide the accumulated sum of samples by the number of samples, N. The resultant average is returned in register pair DE. Only 24 bytes of ROM and 18 bytes of stack are required for this subroutine. Therefore, data averaging can be accomplished by the PDCP at a cost of only 42 bytes of ROM and 18 bytes of stack in addition to the general purpose binary math subroutines.

4.4.2.5 Mean, Variance, and Standard Deviation - Much more information can be obtained from the mean or average of a number of data samples if the variance and standard deviation are also known. Programs 4.4.2.5(1) and 4.4.2.5(2) can be used in conjunction with the data accumulation subroutine [Program 4.4.2.4(1)] to calculate this information aboard the PDCP. Program 4.4.2.5(1) is called each time a data sample is obtained. This program prepares the data for the mean, variance, and standard deviation subroutine by calculating the number of samples, the

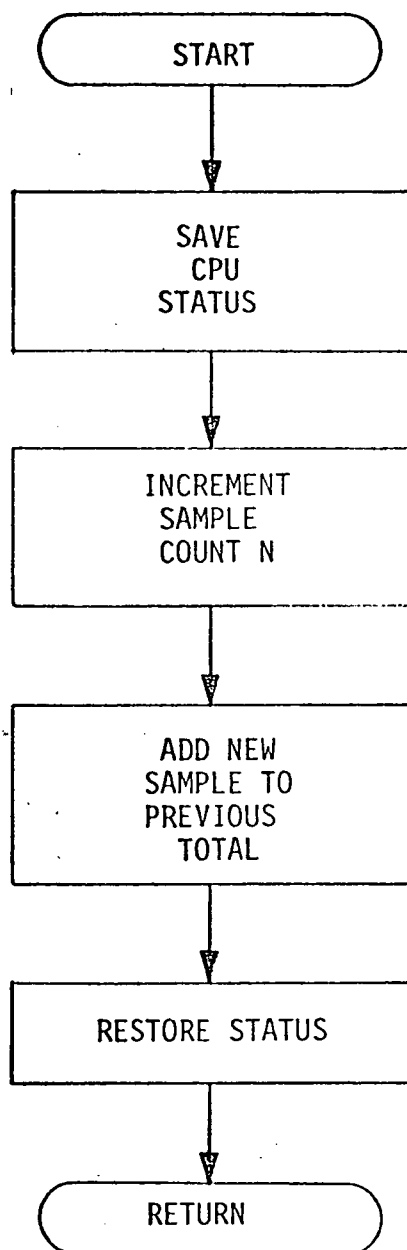


Figure 4.4.2.4(1) Flow Chart for the Data Accumulation Subroutine.

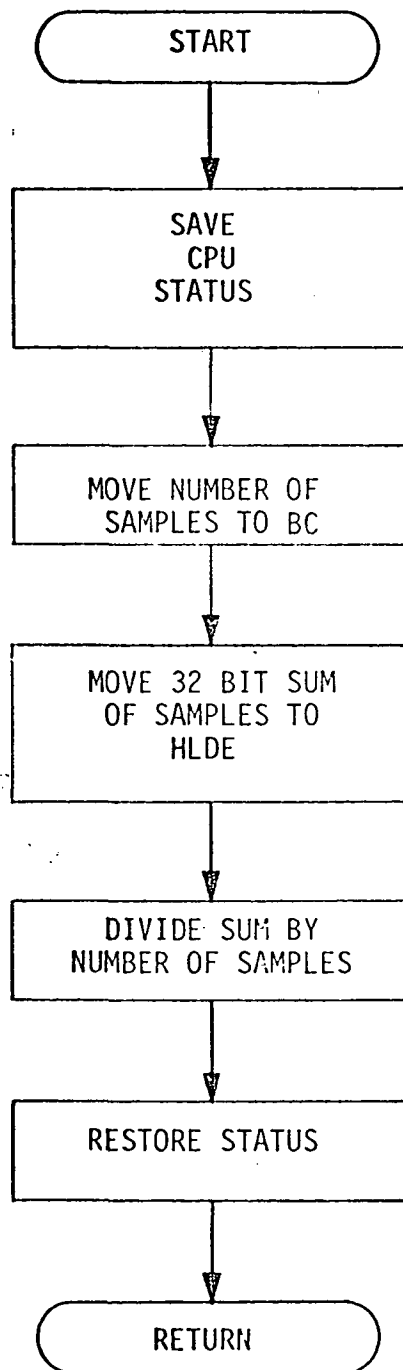


Figure 4.4.2.4(2) Flow Chart for the Data Averaging Subroutine.

Address	Operation	Comments
000646	PUSH	PCW ; SAVE STATUS
000646	PUSH	B
000647	PUSH	D
000647	PUSH	H
000650	CALL	DACC ; INCREMENT SAMPLE COUNT AND ADD SAMPLE TO PREVIOUS SAMPLE
000651	LXI	D, 6 ; 6--->DE
000652	DAD	D ; ADD (DE) TO HL TO POINT HL AT SCRATCH AREA
000661	MOV	E, C ; DUPLICATE SAMPLE IN DE
000661	MOV	D, D ;
000662	CALL	DFMULT ; MULTIPLY (DE)*(DC) TO SQUARE SAMPLE
000662	MOV	C, M ; PLACE LS TWO BYTES OF SQUARE IN DC
000666	INX	H ;
000667	MOV	B, M ;
000670	INX	H ; PLACE TWO MS BYTES OF SQUARE IN DE
000671	MOV	C, M ;
000672	INX	H ;
000673	MOV	D, M ;
000674	INX	H ; POINT HL TO STORAGE AREA FOR SUM OF SQUARED SAMPLES
000675		

Program 4.4.2.5(1) (continued)

000676	015	000	000	CALL	SMADD	; ADD LS TWO BYTES OF SQUARED SAMPLE TO CURRENT SUM
000676				INX	H	; POINT HL TO TWO MS BYTES OF CURRENT SUM OF SQUARES
000701	043			INX	H	; BY INCREMENTING TWICE
000702	043			MOV	C,E	; PLACE MS TWO BYTES OF CURRENT SQUARE IN BC
000703	110			MOV	B,D	
000704	102			MOV	E,L	; POINT DE TO TWO MS BYTES OF CURRENT SUM OF SQUARES
000705	135			MOV	D,H	
000706	124			CALL	DADDH	; ADD TWO MS BYTES OF CURRENT SQUARE TO SUM OF SQUARES
000707	015	050	000	JMP	EXIT	; RESTORE STATUS AND RETURN TO CALLING POINT
000712	003	104	002			

[illegible]

000740	MOV	D,M	, POINT HL TO SCRATCH AREA BY INCREMENTING 3 TIMES
000740	INX	H	
000741	INX	H	
000742	INX	H	
000743	INX	H	
000744	CALL	DPMULT	MULTIPLY DE*BC TO SQUARE SUM OF SAMPLES
000744	CALL	MVSD1	
000747	CALL	DPDIV	(HLDE)/(BC) ----> DE
000752	POP	H	POINT HL TO N
000755	PUSH	H	SAVE HL AGAIN
000756	LXI	B,10	10 ----> BC
000757	DAD	B	ADD 10. TO HL TO POINT TO SUM OF SQUARED SAMPLES
000762	MOV	B,D	QUOTIENT TO BC
000763	MOV	C,E	
000764	CALL	SMSUB	SUBTRACT (BC) FROM (MCILDE) TO FORM (N-1)*VARIANCE
000765	CALL	MVSD1	MOVE RESULT TO HLDE AND # OF SAMPLES TO BC
000770	DCX	B	N-1 ----> BC
000770	CALL	DPDIV	DIVIDE DIFFERENCE BY N-1 TO GET VARIANCE
000774	POP	H	GET ADDRESS OF N
000777	PUSH	H	SAVE HL AGAIN
001000	INX	H	INCREMENT HL TWICE
001001	INX	H	
001002	MOV	M,E	STORE VARIANCE ABOVE #SAMPLES IN MEMORY
001003	INX	H	
001004	MOV	M,D	
001005	XCHG		
001006	CALL	SCRT	SCR. OF VARIANCE TO ACCUMULATOR
001007	INX	D	
001012	STAX	D	STORE STANDARD DEVIATION IN MEMORY
001013	INX	D	
001014			

Program 4.4.2.5(2) (continued)

001014	002	XCH	A			
001015	257	STAX	D			
001016	022	JMP	EXIT			
001017	303			104	002	MVSD1:
001022		MOV	E,M			
001022	136	INX	H			
001023	043	MOV	D,M			
001024	126	INX	H			
001025	043	PUSH	D			
001026	325	MOV	E,M			
001027	136	INX	H			
001030	043	MOV	D,M			
001031	126	INX	SP			
001032	063	INX	SP			
001033	063	INX	SP			
001034	063	INX	SP			
001035	063	INX	SP			
001036	341	POP	H			
001037	345	PUSH	H			
001040	073	DCX	SP			
001041	073	DCX	SP			
001042	073	DCX	SP			
001043	073	DCX	SP			
001044	116	MOV	C,M			
001045	043	INX	H			
001046	106	MOV	B,M			
001047	341	POP	H			
001050	353	XCHG				
001051		RET				

; RESTORE STATUS AND RETURN TO CALLING PROGRAM
 ; SUBROUTINE TAKES 4 BYTES FROM MEMORY BEGINNING AT
 ; CHIL AND PUTS THEM IN HLDE. ALSO LOADS BC WITH
 ; (MCALST VALUE ON STACK)
 ; MOVE LS TWO BYTES OF RESULT TO DE
 ; SAVE LS TWO BYTES
 ; MOVE MS TWO BYTES TO DE
 ; POINT SP TO STACK AREA WHERE THE ADDRESS
 ; OF THE NUMBER OF SAMPLES IS STORED BY INCREMENTING
 ; 4 TIMES
 ; GET ADDRESS OF NUMBER OF SAMPLES
 ; RESAVE IT
 ; RESTORE SP BY DECREMENTING 4 TIMES
 ; MOVE # SAMPLES TO BC
 ; PUT 2 MS BYTES OF RESULT INTO HL
 ; RETURN

Program 4.4.2.5(2) (continued)

sum of the samples, and the sum of the squared samples. A flow chart for Program 4.4.2.5(1) is provided in Figure 4.4.2.5(1).

Program 4.4.2.5(2) calculates the mean, variance, and standard deviation of the data using the formulas

$$\text{MEAN} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i ,$$

$$\text{Variance } (S^2) = \frac{1}{n-1} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right)^2 \right], \text{ and}$$

$$\text{Standard Deviation}(S) = \sqrt{S^2} .$$

A PDCP with this capability would typically calculate and transmit the mean and variance of sensor data acquired between transmissions rather than transmitting a large number of data points. This will significantly reduce the load on the satellite data collection system by reducing bandwidth and data storage requirements. In addition, this data preprocessing operation provides the user with immediate knowledge of the average size of the sample values and the dispersion of the samples about the mean.

A flow chart for Program 4.4.2.5(2) is shown in Figure 4.4.2.5(2). The data accumulation; data preparation for mean, variance, and standard deviation; and mean, variance, and standard deviation subroutines require a total of 150 bytes of program storage and 28 bytes of stack.

4.4.3 Data Formatting and Transmitter Control

Data formatting and transmitter control are two of the four basic tasks performed by the hardwired control logic currently used in most DCP designs. Special emphasis has been placed on developing data formatting and transmitter control subroutines for each of the major data collection satellites because these are essential PDCP tasks which require

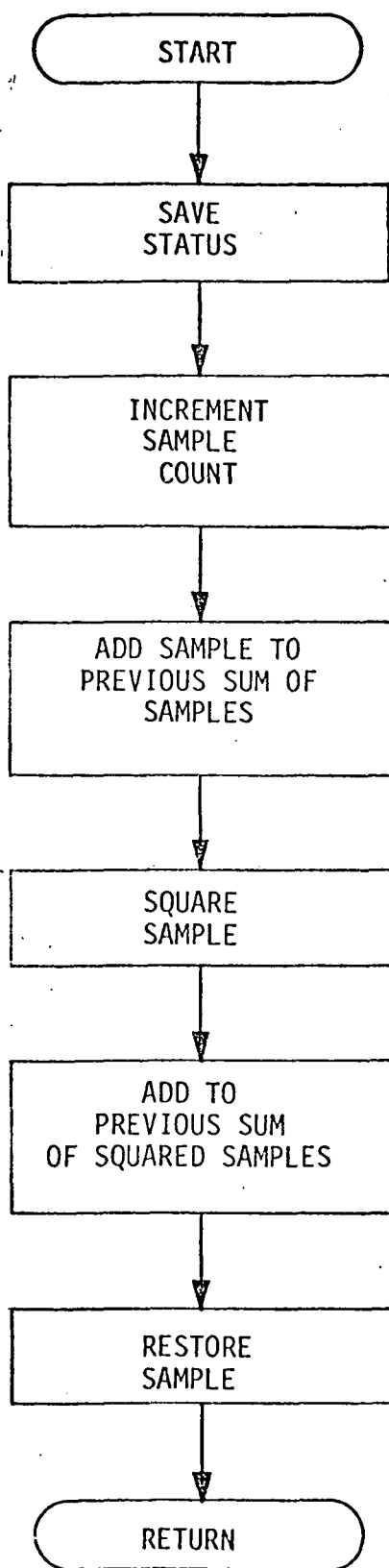


Figure 4.4.2.5(1) Flow Chart for Data Preparation for Mean, Variance, and Standard Deviation Subroutine.

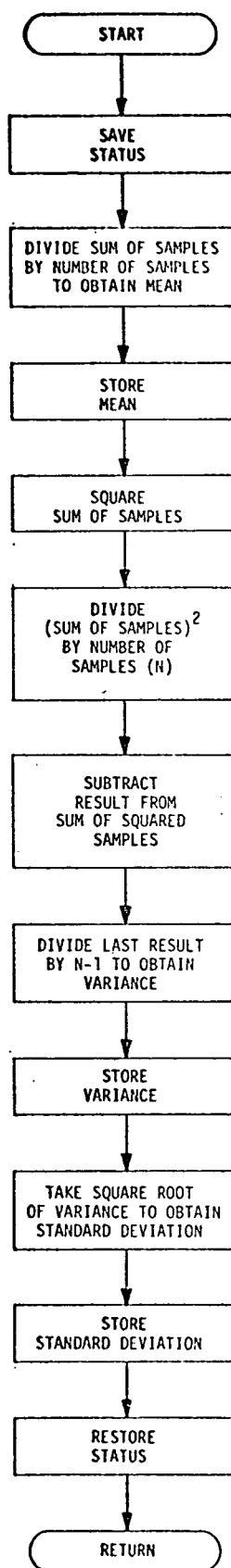


Figure 4.4.2.5(2) Flow Chart for Mean, Variance, and Standard Deviation Subroutine.

precise timing. Normally, both data formatting and transmitter control will be provided by a single subroutine in order to reduce the amount of RAM required for data storage. For example, in the GOES data transmission format an eight-bit data byte is encoded as two 11-bit ASCII words. Each ASCII word is then Manchester encoded before transmission. Thus, as many as 44 bites of RAM would be required to store only eight bits of data. However, if the microprocessor is sufficiently fast, the RAM allocation for data storage can be reduced 82 percent by performing both the ASCII and Manchester encoding in real time during transmission.

The transmitter control programs illustrated in this section assume transmitter modules which operate in basically the same manner as the Landsat-GOES convertible transmitter designed by Ball Brothers Corporation [6]. This transmitter module was chosen because control signal specifications were readily available. Note that the programs presented in this section can easily be modified to function with any reasonable transmitter design.

Ball Brothers' transmitter control signals INTEGRATE, TRANSMITTER ENABLE, and $\pm 15V$ POWER ON are designated as INT, XMITE, and XPWR, respectively. To demonstrate the versatility of a PDCP, additional control signals which could select Landsat (LS), GOES (GO), TIROS-N (TN), or TWERLE (TW) transmitter modes are provided. Normally, a particular PDCP would be required to transmit data to only one type of satellite, and thus a simple modular transmitter designed specifically for that satellite could be used. In this case, control signals LS, GO, TN, and TW would not be required. However, if an electrically convertible transmitter is available and a PDCP is required to transmit data to more than one type of satellite, the LS, GO, TN, and TW signals would enable the correct transmitter mode.

The 8080A programs listed in this section assign transmitter control to output port XCNT (Port 1). Biphase data to the transmitter appears on the least significant bit of output port XMIT (Port 0, see Section 5.1.1.4). Bit assignments for the individual control signals on port XCNT are illustrated in Figure 4.4.3(1). The function of each

OUTPUT PORT XCNR							
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
BIT NUMBER							
TN	XPWR	XMITE	GO	LS	$\overline{\text{INT}}$	TW	(UNUSED)
ASSIGNMENT							

Figure 4.4.3(1) Bit Assignments for Transmitter Control Port XCNR.

control signal is specified in Table 4.4.3(1). As an example of microprocessor control of the transmitter, consider the 8080A assembly language instructions

```
MVI A,124
```

```
OUT XCNTL .
```

The first instruction moves the octal byte 124 into the accumulator, and the second instruction causes the contents of the accumulator to be latched into output port XCNTL. As a result, power is applied to the transmitter, GOES mode is selected, and the integrator is disabled as specified by the binary code 01010100.

Timing is an important consideration in transmitter subroutines. Correct reception of data at the satellite depends upon the self-clocking characteristic of the Manchester code. The transmission rate must be held constant during each transmission, and the 0 → 1 or 1 → 0 transitions representing data must occur precisely at the middle of each bit time. In addition, the transmission rate must be held within a reasonably tight tolerance over the operational life of the PDCP, which can be greater than one year. Because some variation in the frequency of the PDCP master clock must be expected, the transmitter subroutines should not be allowed to contribute to the total error budget. The entire error budget can then be applied to the system oscillator so that the cost of the clock will be minimized.

Since microprocessor controlled operations can only occur at discrete time intervals defined by the system clock, the clock frequency must be chosen to provide an integer number of states during each phase of a data bit. This technique has been employed in the design of the model PDCP (see Section 5.1.1.1). A low frequency clock was chosen so that the microprocessor could be interfaced with inexpensive, low speed memory without the need for a wait-cycle generator. Further, the specific 600-KHz CPU clock was chosen so that an integer number of states will occur within each phase of the Manchester encoded data for all typical

TABLE 4.4.3(1)
TRANSMITTER CONTROL SIGNALS

Signal	Bit Number	Function
(UNUSED)	0	UNUSED BIT provides don't care condition to minimize the number of instructions required to initialize the transmitter data port (Port XMIT)
TW	1	Selects TWERLE transmitter mode
<u>INT</u>	2	<u>INTEGRATE</u> inhibits carrier modulation and thus control clear carrier transmission
LS	3	Selects Landsat transmitter mode
GO	4	Selects GOES transmitter mode
XMITE	5	Enables the transmitter RF signal
XPWR	6	Controls power supply to transmitter
TN	7	Selects TIROS-N transmitter mode

transmission rates. This restriction on the microprocessor clock does not significantly reduce the potential speed of the microprocessor. For example, only a 0.225 percent increase in the theoretical minimum cycle time of the higher speed 8080A-1 microprocessor is required to satisfy the restriction. Table 4.4.3(2) lists the transmission rates for each major data collection satellite system and the corresponding number of states within each phase of the Manchester-encoded data stream for an 8080A with a 600-KHz clock and for an 8080A-1 with a 3.07-MHz clock. Note that the microprocessor must output to port XMIT at a rate equivalent to twice the data rate.

TABLE 4.4.3(2)

TRANSMISSION RATES FOR THE LANDSAT, GOES, TWERLE,
AND TIROS-N DATA COLLECTION SYSTEMS

System	Transmission Rate (Bits Per Second)	Number of States Between Phases of the Manchester-Encoded Data Stream	
		8080A μ P	8080A-1 μ P
		600-KHz Clock	3070-KHz Clock
TWERLE	100	3000	15,350
GOES	100	3000	15,350
TIROS-N	400	750	7,675
Landsat	5000	60	307

4.4.3.1 TWERLE Format Transmitter Subroutine - Specifications for the TWERLE data transmission sequence are shown in Table 4.4.3.1(1). Program 4.4.3.1(1) is a listing of the TWERLE format transmitter routine written for the UT PDCP. This subroutine provides complete control of the transmitter and generates a Manchester-encoded data stream at a rate of precisely 100 bits per second. A simplified flow chart for Program 4.4.3.1(1) is illustrated in Figure 4.4.3.1(1), and a detailed flow chart for the data transmission block is presented in Figure 4.4.3.1(2).

TABLE 4.4.3.1(1)
TWERLE DATA TRANSMISSION SEQUENCE
SPECIFICATIONS

Transmission Interval: 1 second nominal

Transmission Rate: 100 bits per second

Coding: Manchester encoded with a 0 → 1 transition representing a 1

Transmission Sequence:

1. Transmitter power-up followed by a 1 second warm-up delay
 2. Clear carrier transmission for 0.32 to 0.36 seconds
 3. Data transmission
 - a. Bit synchronization code (10101010) (8 bits)
 - b. Frame synchronization code (110101100000) (12 bits)
 - c. Address code (assigned to user) (10 bits)
 - d. Mode bits (2 MSB's of radio altimeter data, LSB first) (2 bits)
 - e. Data bits (32 bits, LSB first)
 - 1) Radio altimeter data (8 bits)
 - 2) Air temperature data (8 bits)
 - 3) Air pressure data (8 bits)
 - 4) Pressure temperature data (8 bits)
 4. Transmitter power-down
-

```

; TWERLE FORMAT TRANSMITTER SUBROUTINE
;
; THIS PROGRAM CONTROLS THE TRANSMISSION OF 34
; BITS OF MANCHESTER ENCODED DATA IN TWERLE
; FORMAT USING AN 8080A MICROPROCESSOR
; WITH A 1.6666 MICROSECOND STATE
; TIME. ALL TIMING FUNCTIONS
; ARE ACCOMPLISHED IN
; SOFTWARE
;

```

DATA CONSTANT DEFINITIONS

```

020000      TWD      = 20000 ; TWERLE DATA BLOCK AT 4K POINT
000000      XMIT     = 0 ; OUTPUT PORT ASSIGNMENTS
000001      XCNTN     = 1 ;
000252      BSYN     = 252 ; BIT SYNC PATTERN
000153      PSYNC     = 153 ; FRAME SYNC PATTERN
000106      TWFO      = 106 ; TWERLE POWER ON CONSTANT
000146      TWCC      = 146 ; TWERLE CLEAR CARRIER CONSTANT
000142      TWDI      = 142 ; TWERLE DATA TRANSMISSION CONSTANT
000004      TO        = 4 ; TRANSMITTER OFF CONSTANT (POWER OFF)
000000      ADRES     = 0 ; TWERLE POCF ADDRESS INPUT PORT ASSIGNMENT
000001      ADRES1    = 1 ; TWERLE POCF ADDRESS - 2MSB INPUT PORT

```

000000

ORG 3244 ; START PROGRAM AT 1700.

```

003244      TWXMIT:    MVI      A, TWFO ; STARTING POINT OF TWERLE TRANSMITTER ROUTINE
003244                                     ; APPLY TRANSMITTER POWER IN TWERLE MODE
003244      076         OUT      XCNTN ; WITH RF TRANSMISSION INHIBITED
003246      323         LXI      H, 24966H ; PROVIDE 1 SECOND WARM-UP DELAY
003250      041         CALL     DELAY1
003253      315         MVI      A, TWCC ; ENABLE TRANSMISSION WITHOUT MODULATION
003256      076         OUT      XCNTN ; DO IT!
003260      323
003260

```

Program 4.4.3.1(1) TWERLE Format Transmitter Subroutine.

```

;
; CLEAR CARRIER SUBROUTINE
;
; CLEAR CARRIER TRANSMISSION TIME VARIES FROM
; 0.31952 SEC. TO 0.36048 SEC. DEPENDING ON THE
; PLATFORM ADDRESS. THIS PREVENTS PLATFORM TO
; PLATFORM INTERFERENCE, AS REQUIRED BY THE
; RAMS SYSTEM ABOARD THE NIMBUS F SATELLITE
;

```

003262	001	374	037	LXI	B, TWD-4 ; ESTABLISH BC AS AN ADDRESS REGISTER
003262					; POINTING 4 LOCATIONS BEFORE THE TWERLE
					; RAM DATA BLOCK
003265	076	252		MVI	A, BSYNC ; BIT SYNC BYTE ----> ACCUMULATOR
003267	002			STAX	B ; BSYNC ----> <TWD-4>
003267					
003270	076	153		MVI	A, FSYNC ; FRAME SYNC BYTE ----> ACCUMULATOR
003270				INX	B ; POINT BC TO TWD-3
003272	003			STAX	B ; STORE 1ST EIGHT FRAME SYNC BITS IN <TWD-3>
003273	002			LXI	H, 7974 ; DELAY TO ESTABLISH MINIMUM CLEAR CARRIER
003274	041	046	037	CALL	DELAY2 ; TRANSMISSION TIME OF 0.31952 SECONDS
003274				DLY4	
003277	315	042	007		
003277					
003302	000			IN	ADRS ; GET 8 LEAST SIGNIFICANT BITS OF TWERLE PDCP ADDRESS
003302				MOV	L, A ; 8 LSB'S OF PLATFORM ADDRESS ----> L
003303	333	000		MOV	E, A ; 8 LSB'S OF PLATFORM ADDRESS ----> E
003305	157			IN	ADRS+1 ; GET TWO MSB'S OF PLATFORM ADDRESS
003306	137			ANI	3 ; PICK OFF BOTTOM TWO BITS ONLY
003307	333	001		MOV	H, A ; 2 MSB'S OF PLATFORM ADDRESS ----> H
003311	346	003		MOV	D, A ; 2 MSB'S OF PLATFORM ADDRESS ----> D
003312	147			DAD	H ; DOUBLE PRECISION 4 BIT SHIFT LEFT OF HL
003313	127			DAD	H
003314	051			DAD	H
003315	051			DAD	H
003316	051			INX	B ; POINT BC TO TWD-2
003317	051			MOV	A, L ; L ----> A AND STORE THE LAST FOUR FRAME SYNC
003317					
003320	051				
003320	003				
003321					
003321					
003322					

Program 4.4.3.1(1) (continued)


```

; THIS SUBROUTINE CONTROLS TRANSMISSION OF THE REMAINING 7 BITS ;
; OF BIT SYNC, THE 12 BITS OF FRAME SYNC, THE 10 BIT PLATFORM ;
; ADDRESS, AND THE 34 DATA BITS FROM RAM BEGINNING AT RAM ;
; ADDRESS TWD-4

```

003357	TW1:	INX	H	; POINT HL AT THE NEXT DATA BYTE
003357		MVI	B,10	; BIT COUNT=3 ----> B
003360	043	MOV	A,M	; GET THE DATA BYTE INTO THE ACCUMULATOR
003362	006	MVI	E,194	; DELAY TO PRODUCE 100 BPS DATA RATE
003362	176	DLY4		
003363	036	DCR	E	
003365	000	JNZ	TW2	
003366	035	CMA		; COMPLEMENT ACCUMULATOR
003367	302	OUT	XMIT	; OUTPUT FIRST PHASE OF CURRENT BIT
003372	057	CMA		; COMPLEMENT ACCUMULATOR
003373	323	MVI	E,198	; DELAY TO PRODUCE 100 BPS DATA RATE
003375	057	DCR	E	
003376	036	JNZ	TW3	
003400	035	DLY9		
003401	302	OUT	XMIT	; TRANSMIT THE SECOND PHASE OF THE CURRENT BIT
003404	000	RRC		; ROTATE THE DB RIGHT ONCE TO GET NEXT BIT
003405	177	DCR	B	; IF ALL BITS OF THE CURRENT BYTE HAVE NOT
003406	323	DLY5		; BEEN TRANSMITTED, PREPARE TO JUMP TO TW2
003410	017	MVI	E,197	; SET UP DELAY
003411	005	JNZ	TW2	; JUMP IF THE LAST BIT OF THIS BYTE HAS NOT
003412	177	DCR	C	; BEEN TRANSMITTED
003413	036	JNZ	TW1	; IF THE LAST DATA BYTE HAS NOT BEEN TRANSMITTED,
003415	302	DLY5		; GO GET THE NEXT BYTE
003420	015			; OTHERWISE DELAY UNTIL THE END OF THE SECOND
003421	302			
003424	177			

Program 4.4.3.1(1) (continued)

```

003425      E,195. ; PHASE OF THE LAST BIT
003425      MVI    303
003425      DCR     E
003427      TW4:
003427      JNZ     007
003430      MVI    027
003430      A,TO    ; PREPARE TO SHUT DOWN TRANSMITTER RF
003433      OUT     004
003435      XCNTN   ; DO IT!
003435      RET     001
003437      ; RETURN TO EXECUTIVE
003437      RET

; SUBROUTINES FOR DELAY ;
      DELAY1: DLY21
      DELAY2: DLY21
      DELAY:  DCX    H ; LONG DELAY SUBROUTINE DECREMENTS
               MOV    A,L ; REGISTER PAIR HL UNTIL ZEROED. CREATES A DELAY
               ORA    H ; OF 27*24*(HL) STATES COUNTING THE CALL AND RETURN
               JNZ    DELAY ; INSTRUCTIONS. DELAY1 AND DELAY2 OPTIONS
               RET     ; ADD UP TO 42 STATES ADDITIONAL DELAY.

      END

```

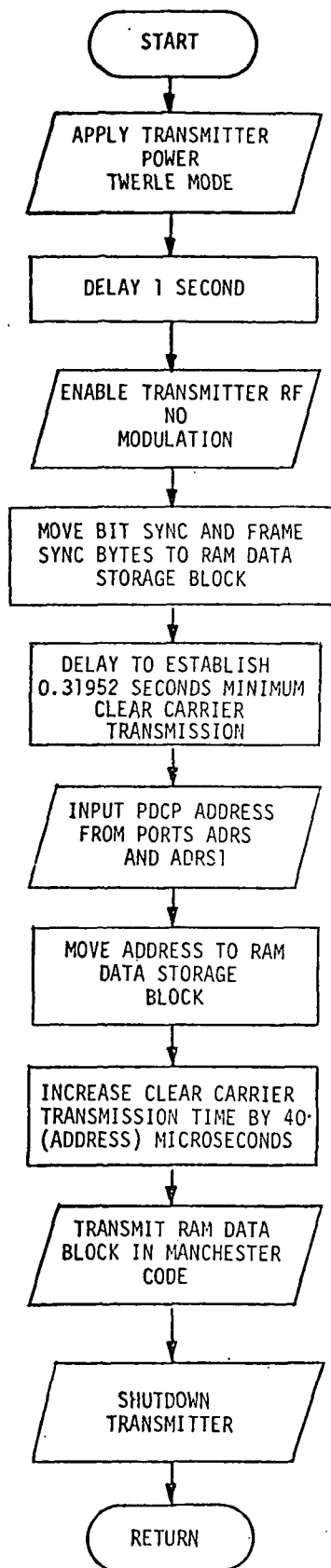



Figure 4.4.3.1(1) Simplified Flow Chart for Subroutine TWXMIT.

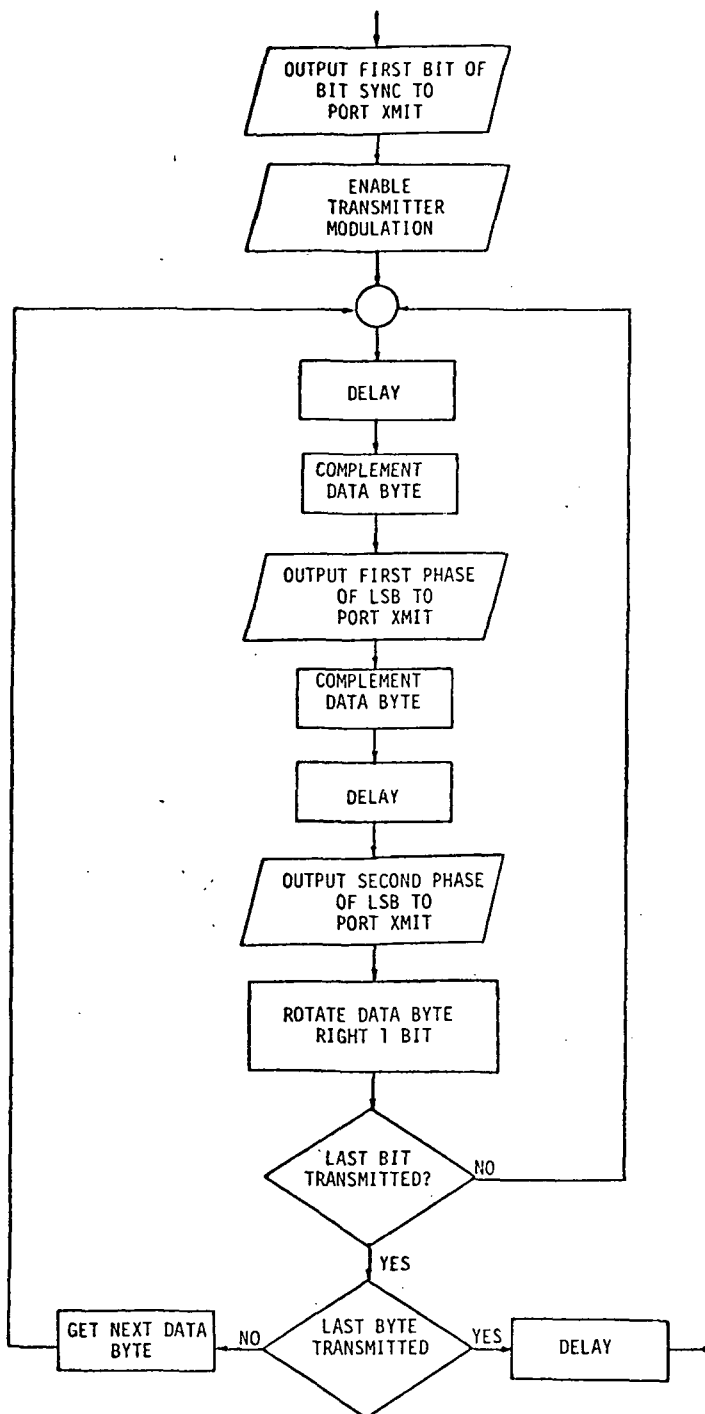


Figure 4.4.3.1(2) Detailed Flow Chart for the Data Transmission Block of Subroutine TWXMIT.

Each TWERLE DCP is assigned a unique ten-bit address code which is normally plug-wired [7]. The TWXMIT subroutine assumes a similar arrangement in which the PDCP address is plug-wired on two bits of input port ADRS1 and eight bits of input port ADRS. These input ports are sampled during the clear carrier portion of each transmission, and the plug-wired address is temporarily stored in the RAM data block. The bit and frame synchronization codes are also moved to the RAM data storage block temporarily so that the data can be transmitted from sequential memory locations. Table 4.4.3.1(2) illustrates the format of the RAM data block.

TABLE 4.4.3.1(2)
FORMAT OF THE TWERLE RAM
DATA BLOCK

Memory Address	Data Byte							
	MSB							LSB
TWD-4	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
TWD-3	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
TWD-2	X ₃	X ₂	X ₁	X ₀	0	0	0	0
TWD-1	A ₉	A ₈	X ₉	X ₈	X ₇	X ₆	X ₅	X ₄
TWD	A ₇	A ₆	A ₅	A ₄	A ₃	A ₂	A ₁	A ₀
TWD+1	T ₇	T ₆	T ₅	T ₄	T ₃	T ₂	T ₁	T ₀
TWD+2	P ₇	P ₆	P ₅	P ₄	P ₃	P ₂	P ₁	P ₀
TWD+3	Pt ₇	Pt ₆	Pt ₅	Pt ₄	Pt ₃	Pt ₂	Pt ₁	Pt ₀

KEY: X - TWERLE PDCP Address Plug-Wired to Ports ADRS and ADRS+1

A - Altimeter Data

T - Air Temperature Data

P - Pressure Data

Pt - Pressure Temperature Data

TWERLE DCP's transmit to the RAM's system aboard the Nimbus-F satellite. This system relies on time and frequency division multiplexing of the data from the various DCP's to prevent transmission interference [8]. In present TWERLE DCP designs, time-division multiplexing depends upon establishing a random variation in the length of the clear carrier transmission from each DCP. An average clear carrier transmission time of 0.34 seconds with nominal range of 0.32 to 0.36 seconds is desired. Currently, an imprecise one-shot circuit which must be manually adjusted for proper timing is used to control the clear carrier transmission time [7] and prevent two systems from interfering with each other for an excessive period. The TWXMIT subroutine listed as Program 4.4.3.1(1) makes a substantial improvement over this system. A software delay routine establishes a minimum clear carrier transmission time of 0.31952 seconds which may be increased to a maximum of 0.36048 seconds according to the formula

$$T = 319.52 + 40A,$$

where T = clear carrier transmission time in microseconds, and A = decimal equivalent to PDCP TWERLE address. Since each TWERLE PDCP is assigned a unique address, this technique guarantees that two systems will not remain in time sequence and interfere with each other. In addition, the transmission interval for each TWERLE PDCP can be computed from the address assigned to that system. Any variation from the assigned transmission interval would provide an early warning of possible system malfunction. Also, the need for manual adjustment of the transmission interval is eliminated.

The TWERLE format transmitter routine uses a general-purpose, long-delay routine which is 11 bytes long. Only 123 additional bytes of ROM are required to store the program. At present 100-piece CMOS 512 byte ROM prices, the incremental component cost of providing the TWXMIT subroutine as part of a standard PDCP ROM is approximately \$9.85. In addition, this subroutine utilizes 12 bytes of RAM for data and stack storage, 10 input bits to specify the platform address, and 8 output bits to provide data and control to the transmitter.

4.4.3.2 GOES Format Transmitter Routine - Specifications for the GOES data transmission sequence [6] are presented in Table 4.4.3.2(1). Program 4.4.3.2(1) is an assembly language listing of the GOES format transmitter routine written for the UT PDCP. This subroutine provides all necessary data formatting and encoding as well as complete transmitter control. In contrast to the TWERLE format transmitter subroutine, Program 4.4.3.2(1) assumes that the unique 31-bit address code assigned to each GOES PDCP is either stored in PROM or plug-wired to a memory-oriented input port. Both ASCII and Manchester data encoding are accomplished in real time during transmission to minimize data storage requirements.

A flow chart for the basic GOES format transmitter subroutine is illustrated in Figure 4.4.3.2(1), and a flow chart for the BIPHS subroutine called by the GOES subroutine is shown in Figure 4.4.3.2(2). Since the amount of GOES data transmitted is variable, the first byte of the RAM data storage block is used to indicate the current number of data bytes. Twelve additional bytes of RAM are required for stack operations. The GOES transmitter program, including subroutine BIPHS and the table area required to store preamble data, occupies 225 bytes of ROM. This program also requires the same 11-byte, general-purpose long-delay subroutine used by the TWERLE format transmitter routine. Primarily because of the ASCII encoding requirement, the GOES format transmitter subroutine is significantly longer than either the TWERLE, TIROS-N, or Landsat transmitter programs. Nevertheless, the GOES transmitter routine would occupy only one-fourth of an 8K-bit ROM. The incremental component cost of providing this subroutine in a standard PDCP ROM is approximately \$18.02.

4.4.3.3 TIROS-N Format Transmitter Routine - Program 4.4.3.3(1) is an assembly language listing of the TIROS-N format transmitter subroutine written for the UT PDCP. This program is based on the preliminary TIROS-N DCP specifications [9] presented in Table 4.4.3.3(1). A flow chart for Program 4.4.3.3(1) is illustrated in Figure 4.4.3.3(1). The TIROS-N transmitter subroutine provides real-time Manchester encoding of the preamble and the 32 data bits. Data is transmitted at a rate of 400 bits per second using the standard transmitter control signals

TABLE 4.4.3.2(1)
GOES DATA TRANSMISSION SEQUENCE
SPECIFICATIONS

Transmission Interval: Selectable up to 24.75 hours in 0.25 hour increments

Transmission Rate: 100 bits per second

Coding: Preamble - Manchester encoded with a 0 → 1 transition representing a 1
Data and EOT characters - ASCII encoded then Manchester encoded as above

Transmission Sequence:

1. Transmitter power-up followed by a 1-second warm-up delay
 2. Clear carrier transmission for a minimum of 5 seconds
 3. Preamble transmission
 - a. Bit synchronization clock (250 bits minimum)
 - b. Frame synchronization code (100010011010111) (15 bits)
 - c. Address code (assigned to user) (31 bits)
 4. Data transmission (up to 2000 bits)
 5. EOT code transmission - three ASCII end-of-transmission characters (33 bits)
 6. Transmitter power-down
-

```

; GOES FORMAT TRANSMITTER PROGRAM
; THIS PROGRAM CONTROLS TRANSMISSION OF UP TO 2000 BITS OF
; MANCHESTER ENCODED DATA IN GOES FORMAT USING AN 8080A
; MICROPROCESSOR WITH A 1.66666 MICROSECOND STATE TIME
;
; ALL TIMING FUNCTIONS ARE ACCOMPLISHED IN SOFTWARE
;

```

000000

```

ORG 1000 ; START PROGRAM AT 1/4 K POINT

```

020000

```

GDATA=20000 ; GOES DATA BLOCK AT 4K POINT
XMIT=0 ; OUTPUT PORT ASSIGNMENT CONSTANTS
XCNTR=1 ; GOES TRANSMITTER POWER ON CONSTANT
GTO=124 ; GOES CLEAR CARRIER CONSTANT
GCC=164 ; GOES DATA TRANSMISSION CONSTANT
GDT=160 ; TRANSMITTER OFF CONSTANT
TO=004

```

001000

```

; GXMIT:
MVI A, GTO ; APPLY TRANSMITTER POWER IN GOES MODE

```

076

```

OUT ; WITH TRANSMISSION INHIBITED

```

124

001002

```

OUT XCNTR

```

323

```

LXI H, 24996H ; PROVIDE 1-SECOND WARM-UP DELAY

```

001

001004

```

CALL DELAY1

```

041

141

001007

```

MVI A, GCC ; ENABLE TRANSMISSION WITHOUT MODULATION

```

315

271

001012

```

OUT XCNTR ; DO IT

```

076

164

001014

```

MVI B, 4 ; PROVIDE 5-SECOND DELAY FOR CLEAR CARRIER

```

323

001

001016

```

LXI H, 31247H ; FOLLOWING THIS DELAY, THE FIRST OF

```

006

004

001020

```

CALL DELAY1 ; 251 CLOCK BITS IS TRANSMITTED IN

```

041

017

001023

```

DCR B ; MANCHESTER CODE WITH A "ONE" REPRESENTED

```

315

271

001026

```

JNZ GX ; BY A 0-31 TRANSITION

```

005

001027

```

DLY4

```

302

020

001032

```

MVI A, GDT ; PREPARE TO TRANSMIT 1ST PHASE OF CLOCK BIT 1

```

000

001033

```

OUT XMIT ; BY PLACING A '0' IN TRANSMITTER DATA BIT LATCH

```

076

160

001035

```

OUT XCNTR ; AND ENABLING TRANSMITTER MODULATION

```

323

000

001037

```

LXI H, 122H ; INSERT DELAY TO CREATE 100 EPS TRANS RATE

```

023

001

001041

```

CALL DELAY2

```

041

172

001044

```


```

315

273

001121	176		MOV	A,M	; CLOCK BITS
001121					; DELAY 7 STATES AND THEN ESTABLISH HL AS
001122	041	000	LXI	H,DATA	; AN ADDRESS REGISTER POINTING TO THE GOES
001122		040			
001125	043		INX	H	; RAM DATA STORAGE AREA
001125					; INCREMENT HL TO POINT TO THE NEXT DB MEMORY LOCATION
001126	176		MOV	A,M	; MOVE THE NEXT DB --> ACCUMULATOR
001127	007		RLC		; ROTATE THE DB LEFT ONE BIT
001130	026	002	MVI	D,2	; D IS A COUNTER WHICH FLAGS WHEN BOTH NIBBLES OF
001130					; THE CURRENT DB HAVE BEEN TRANSMITTED
001132	006	010	MVI	B,10	; B SPECIFIES THE NUMBER OF BITS TO BE TRANSMITTED
001132					; FROM THE CURRENT BYTE
001134	036	007	MVI	E,7	; PREPARE TO CONVERT THE CURRENT NIBBLE TO ASCII. E IS
001134					; THE PARITY FLAG
001136	346	036	ANI	36	
001136					
001140	366	140	ORI	140	
001140					
001142	342	266	JPO	GX10	; CHECK PARITY AND DECREMENT E ONLY IF PARITY IS EVEN
001142		002			
001145	035		DCR	E	; EVEN PARITY IS SENT-TO CHANGE TO ODD, CHANGE JPO
001145					; INSTRUCTION TO JPE
001146	177		DLY5		
001146					
001147	345		PUSH	H	; SAVE HL ON STACK
001147					
001150	046	267	MVI	H,183	; ESTABLISH LENGTH OF INITIAL BIPHASE
001150					
001152	000		DLY13		; DELAY
001152					
001153	000				
001154	177				
001155	315	316	CALL	BIPH5	; CALL BIPHASE SUBROUTINE TO TRANSMIT THE FIRST 8 BITS
001155		002			
001160	006	003	MVI	B,3	; OF THE CURRENT NIBBLES ASCII CODE
001160					; B SPECIFIES THE NUMBER TO BE TRANSMITTED
001162	173		MOV	A,E	; FROM THE CURRENT BYTE
001162					; MOVE LAST 3 BITS OF CURRENT ASCII WORD TO ACCUMULATOR
001163	046	277	MVI	H,191	
001163					
001165	315	316	CALL	BIPH5	; CALL BIPHASE TO TRANSMIT THE REMAINING 3 BITS
001165		002			
001170	341		POP	H	; OF THE CURRENT NIBBLE'S ASCII CODE
001170					; RESTORE HL FROM THE STACK
001171	025		DCR	D	; IF BOTH NIBBLES OF THE CURRENT BYTE HAVE BEEN
001171					

Program 4.4.3.2(1) (continued)

001172	JZ	210	002	GX7	; CONVERTED TO ASCII, JUMP TO GX7
001173	MOV	176		A,M	; IF NOT, MOVE THE ORIGINAL BYTE INTO ACCUMULATOR
001174	RRC	017			; AND ROTATE RIGHT THREE TIMES
001175	RRC	017			
001176	RRC	017			
001177	DLY16				
001178					
001179					
001180					
001181					
001182					
001183					
001184					
001185					
001186					
001187					
001188					
001189					
001190					
001191					
001192					
001193					
001194					
001195					
001196					
001197					
001198					
001199					
001200					
001201					
001202					
001203					
001204					
001205					
001206					
001207					
001208					
001209					
001210					
001211					
001212					
001213					
001214					
001215					
001216					
001217					
001218					
001219					
001220					
001221					
001222					
001223					
001224					
001225					
001226					
001227					
001228					
001229					
001230					
001231					
001232					
001233					
001234					
001235					
001236					
001237					
001238					
001239					
001240					
001241					
001242					
001243					
001244					
001245					
001246					
001247					
001248					
001249					
001250					
001251					
001252					
001253					
001254					
001255					
001256					
001257					
001258					
001259					
001260					

Program 4.4.3.2(1) (continued)

```

001253      MVI      A,193.      ; ELSE ADD DELAY
001253      DCR      A           ; DELAY
001255      JNZ      GX9
001256      MVI      A,TO       ; SHUT DOWN TRANSMITTER
001261      OUT      XCNTN      ; DO IT!
001263      RET              ; RETURN TO EXECUTIVE
001265
001266      JMP      GX6           ; DELAY
001266
001271      DELAY1: DLY21
001271
001273      DELAY2: DLY21
001273
001275      DELAY:
001275      DCX      H           ; LONG DELAY SUBROUTINE. DECREASES HL UNTIL
001276      MOV      A,L         ; ZEROED. CREATES A DELAY OF 27+24*CHL> STATES
001276      ORA      H           ; COUNTING THE CALL AND RETURN INSTRUCTIONS
001277      JNZ      DELAY
001300
001300      RET
001303
001303
001304      FAD:      DB      377   ; THIS BLOCK IS DATA STORAGE FOR A CLOCK WORD,
001304
001305      DB      107           ; A 15-BIT SYNC WORD AND A 31-BIT PDCP GOES ADDRESS
001305
001306      DB      326           ; THE 31-BIT GOES ADDRESS SHOULD BE STORED AS SHOWN BELOW:
001306
001307      DB      001           ; STORE BITS A6-A0 AS THE MSB THROUGH THE NEXT TO LSB
001307
001310      DB      000           ; OF THIS WORD. THE LSB MUST BE 1.
001310
001311      DB      000           ; STORE BITS A14-A7 AS THE MSB THROUGH THE LSB OF THIS WORD
001311
001312      DB      000           ; STORE BITS A22-A15 AS THE MSB THROUGH THE LSB OF THIS WORD
001312
001312      DB      000           ; STORE BITS A30-A23 AS THE MSB THROUGH THE LSB OF THIS WORD
001312
001312      ; A0 IS THE LSB OF THE PDCP ADDRESS AND A30 IS THE
001312      ; MSB OF THE PDCP ADDRESS. THE ADDRESS CURRENTLY STORED
001312      ; IS ZERO.

```

Program 4.4.3.2(1) (continued)

```

001313      ; THIS SUBROUTINE CONTROLS TRANSMISSION OF THE BYTE CURRENTLY ;
001314      ; STORED IN THE ACCUMULATOR. THE DATA IS MANCHESTER ENCODED ;
001315      ; AS IT IS TRANSMITTED ;
001316
001313      BI2:   DLY4
001314      MVI    HL,194
001315      BIPHS:
001316      DLY36
001317      BI1:   DCR    H      ; DELAY TO CREATE 100 BPS TRANSMISSION RATE
001318      JNZ    BI1
001319      JMP    BIOUT
001320
001321      BIOUT:  CMA      ; COMPLEMENT THE DATA BYTE
001322      OUT     XMIT      ; TRANSMIT THE 1ST PHASE OF THE CURRENT LSB
001323      CMA      ; COMPLEMENT THE DATA BYTE AGAIN
001324      LXI    HL,121
001325      PUSH   PSW
001326      CALL   DELAY      ; DELAY TO CREATE 100 BPS TRANSMISSION RATE
001327      POP    PSW
001328      OUT     XMIT      ; TRANSMIT THE 2ND PHASE OF THE CURRENT LSB
001329      RRC      ; ROTATE THE DB RIGHT 1 BIT POSITION
001330      DCR    B      ; IF BIT '8' OF THE CURRENT DB HAS NOT BEEN
001331      JNZ    BI2      ; TRANSMITTED, JUMP TO BI2 AND INSERT DELAY
001332      RET      ; OTHERWISE RETURN TO THE MAIN GXMIT PROGRAM
001333
001353      END

```

Program 4.4.3.2(1) (continued)

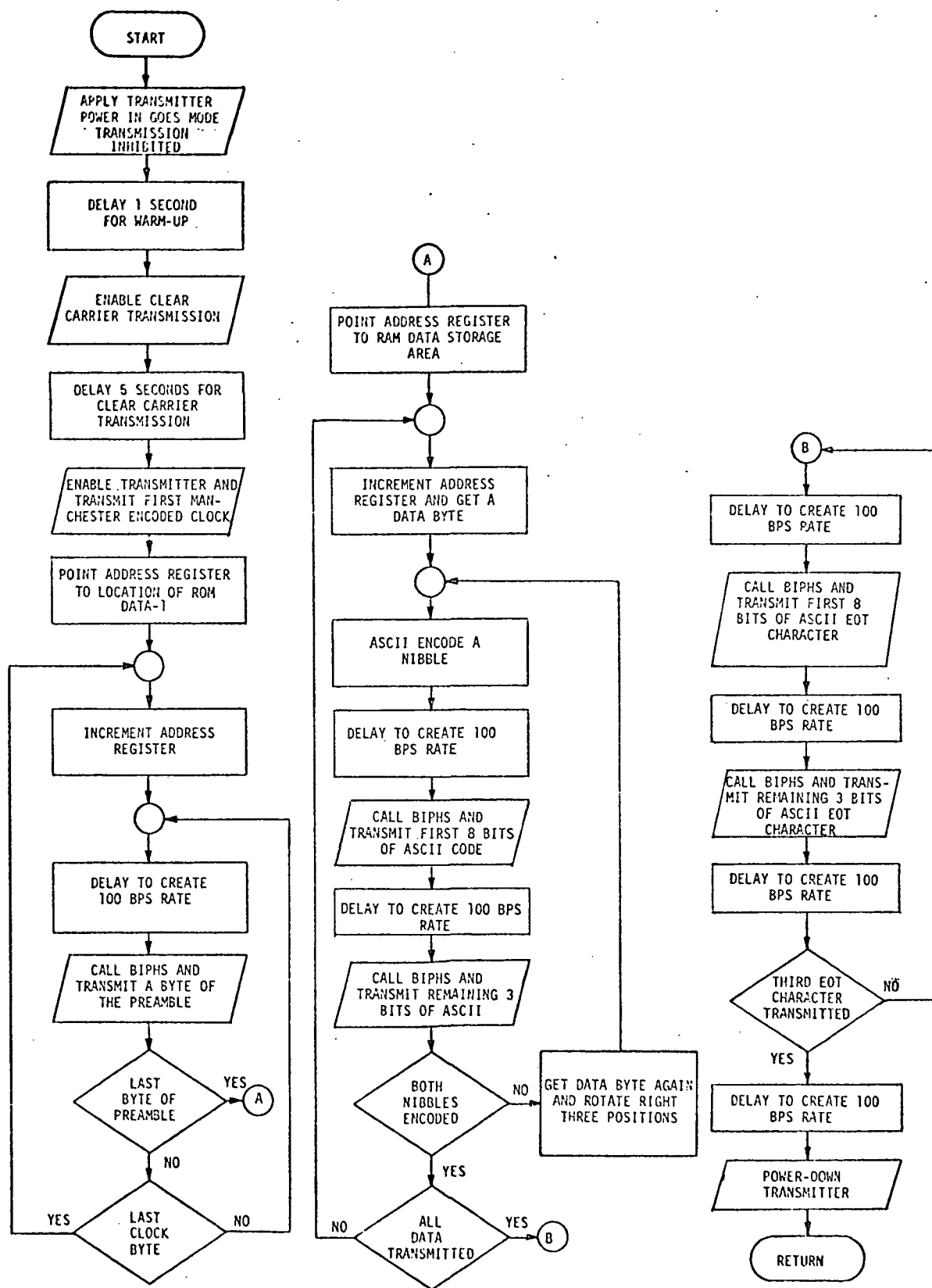


Figure 4.4.3.2(1) Flow Chart for GOES Transmitter Subroutine.

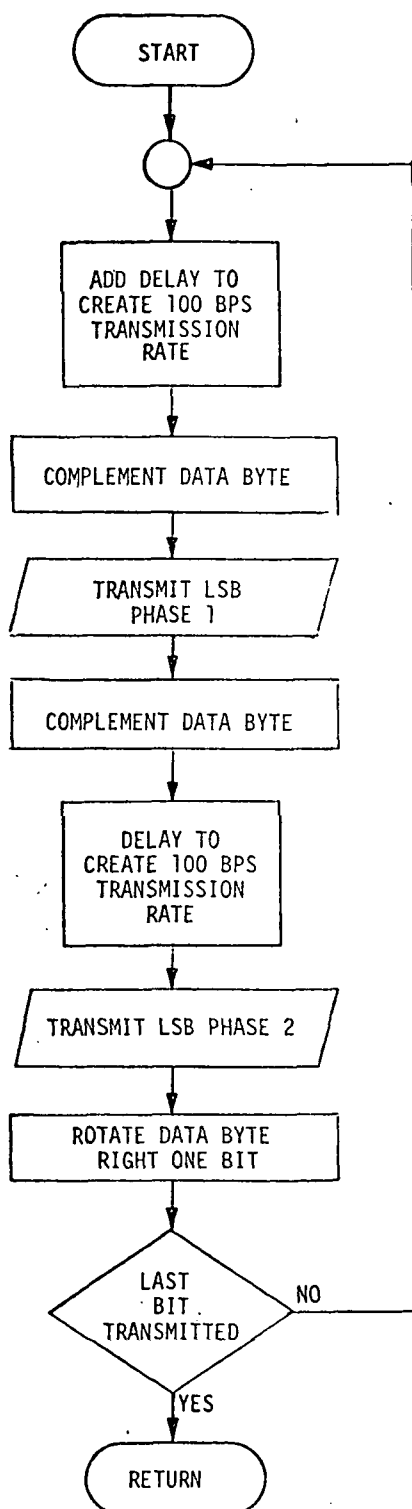


Figure 4.4.3.2(2) Flow Chart for Subroutine BIPHS.

TIROS-N FORMAT TRANSMITTER SUBROUTINE

```

; THIS PROGRAM CONTROLS THE TRANSMISSION OF 32 BITS OF MANCHESTER
; ENCODED DATA IN TIROS-N FORMAT USING AN 8080A MICROPROCESSOR
; WITH A 1.66666 MICROSECOND STATE TIME. ALL TIMING FUNCTIONS
; ARE ACCOMPLISHED IN SOFTWARE.

```

DATA CONSTANT DEFINITIONS:

```
020000      ; TIROS-N DATA BLOCK AT 4K POINT
TND=20000
XMIT=0       ; OUTPUT PORT ASSIGNMENTS
XCNTR=1
TIPO=304     ; TIROS TRANSMITTER POWER ON CONSTANT
TCC=344      ; TIROS CLEAR CARRIER CONSTANT
TDI=340      ; TIROS DATA TRANSMISSION CONSTANT
```

```

000000      ; START PROGRAM AT 1.5K POINT
003000      ; STARTING POINT OF TIROS TRANSMITTER
           ; ROUTINE.
TNXMIT:

```

ADDRESS	OPERATION	COMMENT
003000	MVI A, TTPO	APPLY TRANSMITTER POWER IN TIROS-N MODE
003000		
003002	OUT XCNR	WITH TRANSMISSION INHIBITED
003002		DO IT
003004	LXI H, 24997	PROVIDE ONE-SECOND WARM-UP DELAY
003004		
003007	CALL DELAY	
003007		
003012	DLY10	
003012		
003014	MVI A, TCC	ENABLE TIROS CLEAR CARRIER TRANSMISSION
003014		
003016	OUT XCNR	DO IT
003016		
003020	LXI H, 3997	PROVIDE 160 MILLISECOND DELAY
003020		
003023	CALL DELAY	FOLLOWING THIS DELAY, THE FIRST BIT
003023		OF THE BIT SYNCHRONIZATION PATTERN
003026	MVI A, TDT	11111111111111 IS TRANSMITTED
003026		
003030	OUT XMIT	IN MANCHESTER CODE WITH A
003030		
003032	OUT XCNR	ONE REPRESENTED BY A 0-1 TRANSITION
003032		ENABLE TIROS DATA TRANSMISSION MODE

003034	MVI	A, 60		; TO TRANSMIT THE FIRST PHASE OF BIT 1
003035	DCR	A		; INSERT DELAY TO CREATE 400 BPS
003036	JNZ	TN0		; TRANSMISSION RATE
003037	DLY9		006	
003038	CMA			
003039	OUT	XMIT		; TRANSMIT SECOND PHASE OF BIT 1
003040	LXI	B, 3412		; 7 ----> B ; 12 ----> C
003041	LXI	H, PADATA		
003042	MOV	A, M		
003043	MVI	E, 44		
003044	DLY8			
003045	JMP	TN2		
003046	DLY10			; THIS SUBROUTINE CONTROLS
003047	INX	H		; TRANSMISSION OF THE REMAINING 14-BITS
003048	MVI	B, 10		; OF THE BIT SYNC PATTERN, THE 2-BIT FRAME
003049	MOV	A, M		; SYNC PATTERN AND THE 24-BIT ADDRESS
003050	MVI	E, 40		; 8-BIT DATA BYTES ARE TRANSMITTED FROM RAM
003051	DLY8			
003052	DLY4			; BEGINNING AT ADDRESS TNDATA.
003053	DCR	E		; DELAY
003054	JNZ	TN2		
003055	CMA			; COMPLEMENT ACCUMULATOR
003056	OUT	XMIT		; TRANSMIT THE FIRST PHASE
003057	CMA			; OF THE CURRENT LSB
003058	MVI	E, 60		; COMPLEMENT ACCUMULATOR
003059				; DELAY
003060				
003061				
003062				
003063				
003064				
003065				
003066				
003067				
003068				
003069				
003070				
003071				
003072				
003073				
003074				
003075				
003076				
003077				
003078				
003079				
003080				
003081				
003082				
003083				
003084				
003085				
003086				
003087				
003088				
003089				
003090				
003091				
003092				
003093				
003094				
003095				
003096				
003097				
003098				
003099				
003100				
003101				
003102				
003103				
003104				
003105				
003106				
003107				
003108				
003109				
003110				

Program 4.4.3.3(1) (continued)

003112	035		TN3:	DCR	E	
003113				JNZ	TN3	
003114	302	112	006	DLY9		
003115	000					
003116	177					
003117				OUT	XMIT	; TRANSMIT THE SECOND PHASE OF THE
003118	323	000				; CURRENT LSB
003119				RRC		; ROTATE THE DATA BYTE RIGHT ONE BIT
003120	017			DCR	B	
003121	005			MOV	E,M	; DELAY
003122	136			MVI	E,45	; IF ALL BITS OF THE CURRENT BYTE
003123	036	045		JNZ	TN2	; HAVE BEEN TRANSMITTED, DELAY AND
003124	302	077	006			; THEN TRANSMIT THE NEXT BIT
003125				MVI	A,4	
003126	076	004		DCR	C	; IF THE FINAL DATA BYTE HAS BEEN TRAN-
003127	015			JZ	TN5	; MTTED, GO TO THE TRANSMITTER POWER
003128	312	155	006			; DOWN SEQUENCE
003129				CMP	C	; IF THE LAST BYTE OF ADDRESS CODE HAS
003130	271			JZ	TN4	; BEEN TRANSMITTED FROM ROM, PREPARE TO
003131	312	147	006	JMP	TN1	; TRANSMIT RAM DATA BYTES
003132	303	065	006	LXI	H,TND-1	; POINT DATA ADDRESS REGISTERS (HL)
003133	041	377	037			; TO RAM DATA LOCATION MINUS 1
003134				JMP	TN1+2	; AND RETURN TO TRANSMIT DATA
003135	303	067	006	LXI	D,55	; DELAY
003136	021	055	000	DCR	E	
003137	035			JNZ	TN5+3	
003138	302	160	006	OUT	XCNTR	; SHIFT DOWN TRANSMITTER AND REMOVE
003139	323	001		RET		; POWER
003140	311					

Program 4.4.3.3(1) (continued)

TABLE 4.4.3.3(1)

TIROS-N DATA TRANSMISSION
SEQUENCE SPECIFICATIONS

Transmission Interval: Variable 40, 60, or 80 seconds

Transmission Rate: 400 bits per second

Coding: Manchester encoded with a 0 → 1 transition representing a 1

Transmission Sequence:

1. Transmitter power-up followed by a 1 second warm-up delay
 2. Clear carrier transmission for 160 ± 2.5 milliseconds
 3. Preamble transmission
 - a. Bit synchronization clock (15 bits)
 - b. Frame synchronization code (000101111) (9 bits)
 - c. Address code (assigned to user) (24 bits)
 4. Data transmission - four bytes (32 bits)
 5. Transmitter power-down
-

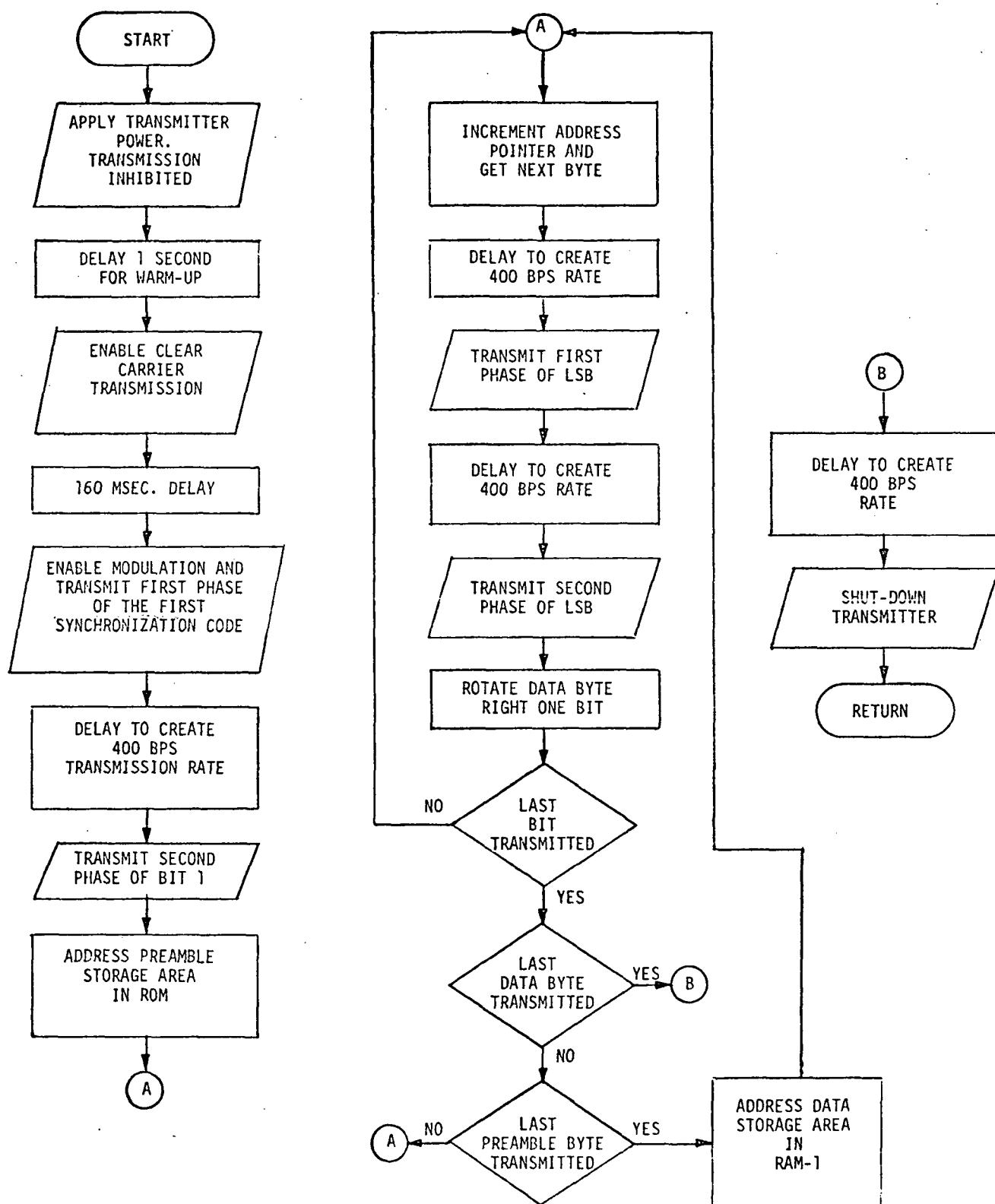


Figure 4.4.3.3(1) Flow Chart for TIROS-N Transmitter Subroutine.

defined in Section 4.4.3. The TIROS-N transmitter program utilizes eight bytes of RAM for data storage and stack operations and 124 bytes of ROM for program and preamble storage. In addition, this program also uses the standard long-delay subroutine.

4.4.3.4 Landsat Format Transmitter Subroutine - Specifications for the Landsat data transmission sequence [6] are presented in Table 4.4.3.4(1). The Landsat data transmission rate of 5000 bits per second is significantly higher than the data transmission rates used in the TWERLE, GOES, and TIROS-N data collection systems. Because of this high data transmission rate, convolutional encoding of Landsat data cannot be accomplished in real time during transmission from the UT PDCP system. Instead, a separate subroutine [Program 4.4.3.4(1)] is used to convolutionally encode the data prior to transmission. A flow chart for the PDCP convolutional encoder subroutine is illustrated in Figure 4.4.3.4(1). This subroutine is called by the executive program prior to each data transmission. The convolutional encoding process creates two code bits for each original bit of data but provides error detection and correction capabilities.

Manchester encoding, transmitter control, and actual Landsat data transmission are provided by Program 4.4.3.4(2). A flow chart for the Landsat format transmitter subroutine is shown in Figure 4.4.3.4(2). Together, Program 4.4.3.4(1) and Program 4.4.3.4(2) require 188 bytes of ROM for program storage and 31 bytes of RAM for data storage and stack operations.

4.4.4 Special Computations

Remote processing of data is a logical extension of the capabilities of the microprocessor-based PDCP. The question arises, however, as to what sort of numerical techniques are practical given the present time and memory restrictions of a PDCP system. In an effort to answer this question, the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) was chosen for implementation. It is a sophisticated and powerful tool in numerical analysis, allowing the decomposition of time signals into their frequency components. It has been proposed, for example, that seismic events may be detected by

TABLE 4.4.3.4(1)
LANDSAT DATA TRANSMISSION SEQUENCE
SPECIFICATIONS

Transmission Interval: 90 or 180 seconds

Transmission Rate: 5000 bits per second

Coding: Convolutional encoding, rate 1/2,
constraint length 5

Manchester encoded, 1 → 0 transition
representing a 1

Transmission Sequence:

1. Transmitter and platform power-up for 50 milliseconds
 2. Turn on RF power simultaneous with first serial data bit
 3. Data transmission

a. Message preamble (0000000000000000)	(15 zeroes)
b. Platform address (assigned to user)	(12 bits)
c. Sensor data 1-8 eight-bit words	(8-64 bits)
d. Runout bits (0000)	<u>(4 zeroes)</u>
Total	39-95 bits
 4. Transmitter and platform power-down
-

NOTE: The 39-95 bits of Landsat message are before convolutional and Manchester encoding. The actual transmitted message is 4 x (39 to 95) bits.

001024	LDA	LPADR	, GET HIGH PART OF PLATFORM ADDRESS
001024	STAX	D	, STORE HIGH PART IN DATA BLOCK
001027	LXI	D, DATA+4	, POINT DE AT HIGH ADDRESS OF PLATFORM IN DATA BLOCK
001030	CON1:	INX	D , POINT DE TO NEXT DB TO BE CONVOLVED
001033	LDAX	D	, PUT NEXT DB IN ACCUMULATOR
001034	MOV	L, A	, A ----> L
001035	CALL	C4BITS	, CONVOLVE 4 BITS OF A DB INTO 8 BITS AND
001036	INX	D	, WRITE INTO LOCATION ADDRESSED BY DE.
001041			, POINT DATA BLOCK POINTER AT NEXT LOCATION
001042	CALL	C4BITS	, NOW CONVOLVE REMAINING 4 BITS AND WRITE
001042			, INTO NEXT LOCATION ADDRESSED BY DE.
001045	DCR	B	, FINISHED CONVOLVING ENTIRE BYTE SO
001045	JNZ	CON1	, DECREMENT BYTE COUNT.
001046	LHLD	DATA	, NOT DONE DO ANOTHER BYTE.
001051	DAD	H	, COMPUTE NUMBER OF BITS TO BE BIPHASED
001054	DAD	H	, FROM NUMBER OF BYTES IN DATA BLOCK
001055	DAD	H	
001056	DAD	H	
001057	DAD	H	, MULTIPLY #BYTES BY 16 BY DOUBLE ADDING HL 4 TIMES
001060	LXI	D, 14	, PUT 14 DECIMAL IN DE AND THEN
001063	DAD	D	, ADD TO HL
001064	SHLD	DATA	, NUMBER OF BITS TO BE ENCODED INTO FIRST BYTE OF DATA BLOCK
001067	RET		, ALL DONE, RETURN TO EXECUTIVE

Program 4.4.3.4(1) (continued)

001132	CALL	NEXTB		CONVOLVE ANOTHER BIT
001132			002	
001135	CALL	NEXTB		CONVOLVE FINAL BIT FOR THIS ROUTINE
001135			002	
001140	STAX	D		SAVE CONVOLVED BITS IN PRESENT DE LOCATION
001140			022	
001141	RET			
001141			311	
001142	HPADR:	DB	10	HIGH FOR BITS OF PLATFORM ADDRESS WOULD BE
001142				STORED IN ROM HERE
001143	LPADR:	DB	00	LOW 8 BITS OF PLATFORM ADDRESS STORED HERE
001143				
001144	END			
001144			000	

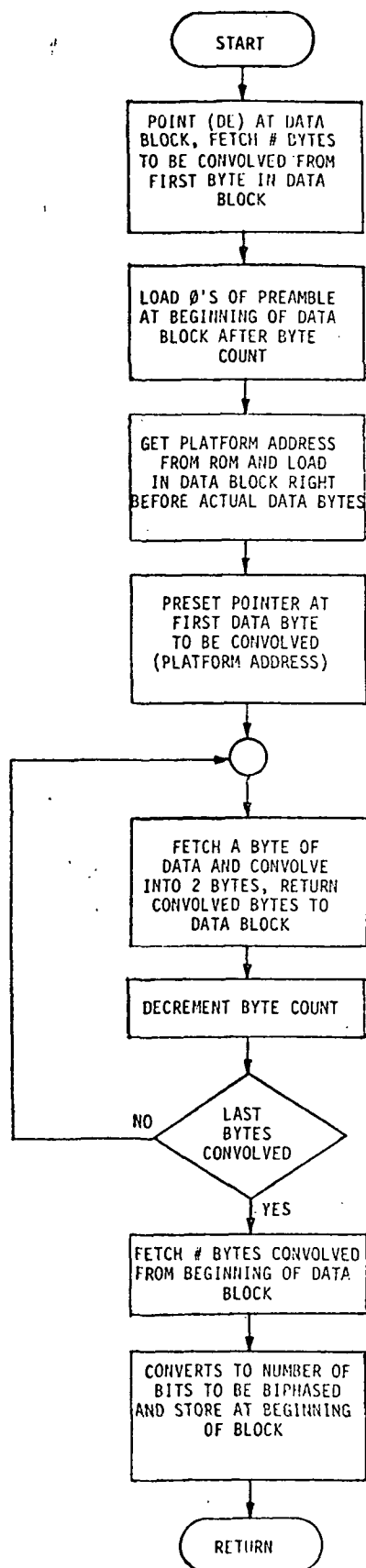


Figure 4.4.3.4(1) Flow Chart for the PDCP Convolutional Encoder Subroutine.

```

; LANDSAT FORMATTED TRANSMITTER ROUTINE
;
; THIS PROGRAM CONTROLS THE TRANSMISSION OF UP TO 190 BITS OF
; LANDSAT FORMATTED DATA MESSAGE USING AN 8080A MICROPROCESSOR
; WITH A 1.6666 MICROSECOND STATE TIME. ALL TIMING
; FUNCTIONS ARE ACCOMPLISHED IN SOFTWARE. "LDLY" IS A
; MACRO INSTRUCTION WHICH CAUSES A SOFTWARE DELAY OF
; 50 MILLISECONDS BETWEEN OUTPUTS.
;
; DATA CONSTANTS USED ARE DEFINED BELOW:
;
DATA=4000      ; DATA BLOCK AT 2K POINT

PWRON= ^B00110010      ; CONTROL WORD CONSTANTS
RFON= ^B00010110
PWOFF=^B00100000

XMIT=0
XCNTR=1

; OUTPUT PORT ASSIGNMENTS

ORG 2000      ; START PROGRAM AT 1 K POINT

LXMIT:      ; START OF LANDSAT TRANSMITTER ROUTINE.

LXI H, DATA      ; POINT MEMORY AT DATA BLOCK, 2K POINT
MOV D, M      ; #BITS TO BE BIPHASED ---> D
MVI C, 10      ; D = NUMBER OF CONVOLVED BYTES * 16 +14
; D = 8 DECIMAL ---> C

MVI A, PWRON      ; SET UP CONTROL WORD TO TURN ON ALL PWR EXCEPT RF
OUT XCNTR      ; POWER ON!

INX H      ; 50 MILLISECONDS LATER TURN ON RF
; POINT TO FIRST DATA BYTE

MOV A, M      ; FIRST DB ----> ACCUMULATOR
OUT XMIT      ; PUT FIRST BIT OUT SO DATA WILL
; BE TRUE WHEN RF COMES ON

MVI E, 3      ; SET E TO BIPHASE ONLY 3 BITS OF FIRST BYTE

```

Program 4.4.3.4(2) Landsat Format Transmitter Subroutine.

```

002020 045      LDLY      ; DELAY 50 MILLISECONDS FROM POWER ON TO RF ON
002020 041      336      004
002021 053
002024 175
002025 264
002026 302
002027 341
002032 177
002033 177
002035 000
002036 177
002037 076
002037 026

      MVI      A,RFON      ; SET UP CONTROL WORD TO OPERATE
      ; IN LANDSAT MODE WITH RF ON, DATA ENABLED AND
      ; INTEGRATOR INITIAL CONDITION RELEASED
      ; RF ON AND START DATA FLOW!
      LXM2:    OUT      XCNT
      MOV      A,M      ; RESTORE FIRST DATA BIT OF FIRST BYTE
      DLY29      ; TIME THE BIT FOR 60 MACHINE STATES
      JMP      AG1      ; FROM LXM2: TO AG1:
      INX      H      ; POINT MEMORY TO NEXT DB
      MOV      A,M      ; PUT NEXT DB --> ACCUMULATOR
      MOV      E,C      ; SET BIT COUNT IN E TO 8 DECIMAL
      DCR      D      ; DECREMENT BIT COUNT
      DLY3      ; DELAY 50 BIT TIME IS 60 MACHINE STATES
      AGAIN:    OUT      XMIT      ; OUTPUT FIRST PHASE OF BIT
      DLY46      ; DELAY 50 BIT TIME IS 60 MACHINE STATES
002040 323      000
002040 177
002042 343
002044 301
002046 000
002050 303
002050 066
002053 043
002054 176
002055 131
002056 025
002057 177
002060 323
002060 000
002062 177
002064 343

```

Program 4.4.3.4(2) (continued)

```

002066 AGI: CMA ; COMPLEMENT BIT TO SEND SECOND PHASE OF BIT
002067 OUT XMIT ; OUTPUT SECOND PHASE OF BIT
002068 CMA ; RESTORE BIT TO TRUE FORM
002069 RRC ; SHIFT BIT RIGHT ONE BIT POSITION
002070 DCR E ; DECREMENT BIT COUNT
002071 JZ NEXT ; AFTER 8 BITS GO GET NEXT DB
002072 DCR D ; DECREMENT TOTAL BIT COUNT (CHECK FOR NEXT
002073 DLY12 ; TO LAST BIT OUTPUTTED)
002074 ; MAKE LOOP = 60 MACHINE STATES
002075
002100 JNZ AGAIN ; OUTPUT ANOTHER BIT IF NOT THROUGH
002101 OUT XMIT ; OUTPUT LAST BIT, FIRST PHASE
002102 DLY46 ; DELAY FOR BIT TIME OF 60 MACHINE STATES
002103 CMA ; COMPLEMENT BIT TO SEND SECOND PHASE
002104 OUT XMIT ; OUTPUT SECOND PHASE OF LAST BIT
002105 SHUTDW: MVI A, PWROFF ; LOAD ACCUMULATOR WITH SHUTDOWN CONTROL WORD.
002106 DLY43 ; DELAY 30 BIT TIME IS 60 MACHINE STATES
002107
002120 OUT XCNTN ; SHUTDOWN PLATFORM POWER
002121 RET ; ALL DONE, RETURN TO EXECUTIVE.
002122
002133 END

```

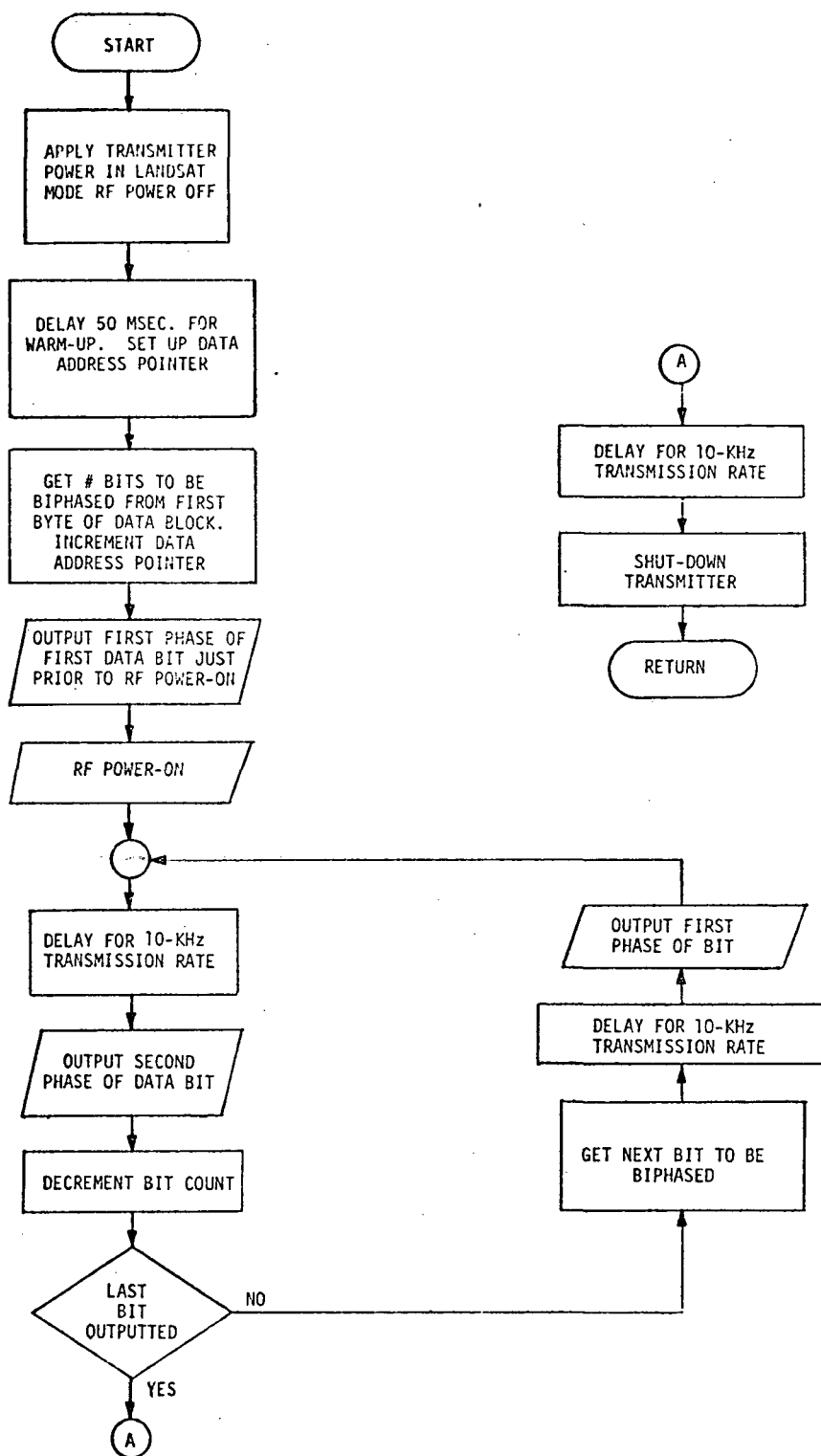


Figure 4.4.3.4(2) Flow Chart for the Landsat Transmitter Subroutine.

an analysis of their frequency components, and with this in mind a classifier based on the Bayes decision rule was investigated for its possible practical application to seismic event detection. Figure 4.4.4(1) shows how the FFT and Bayes classifier would work together in a detection scheme.

4.4.4.1 The FFT Program - The implementation of the fast Fourier transform (FFT) program was carefully studied. Because of limitations in execution time and memory size imposed by the PDCP, the commonly used forms of the algorithm were unacceptable. Most involve considerable manipulation of complex numbers, in particular, complex multiplication. Also, most existing FFT programs require the calculation of weighting factors, which are themselves complex and trigonometric in nature.

A method which avoids these time consuming problems was reported in a short paper by Dr. C. M. Rader and N. M. Brenner [9]. It outlines an approach whereby only pure imaginary weighting factors are required, thus decreasing the total number of multiplications necessary. In addition, the weighting factors fall in a convenient range of values, from $j0.5$ to $j5$ (for 64-point transforms or less).

The derivation of the Rader-Brenner form is outlined in Appendix B and need not be repeated here. However, it is helpful to see the flow of the process. Figure 4.4.4(2) outlines the sequence of events graphically for each data byte pair (complex data value) of a 16-point transform. First is the summation stage where c_n is calculated for the two-point, four-point, and eight-point cases. Recall from the derivation that $c_n = a_{2N+1} + a_{2N-1} + Q$, where $n = 0, 1, \dots, N/2-1$. Next, the data values are permuted so that the final output data will be in numerical and not bit-reverse order [10]. That is, cell one will contain the first Fourier coefficient, cell two will contain the second, and so on. Finally, the two-, four-, eight- and 16-point transforms are calculated.

As can be seen from the 8080A FFT program source listing, (Program C(1) in Appendix C) a FORTRAN program is used as the logical model for the assembly language program. There are several advantages to this approach. In the first place, FORTRAN offers a clear way to logically

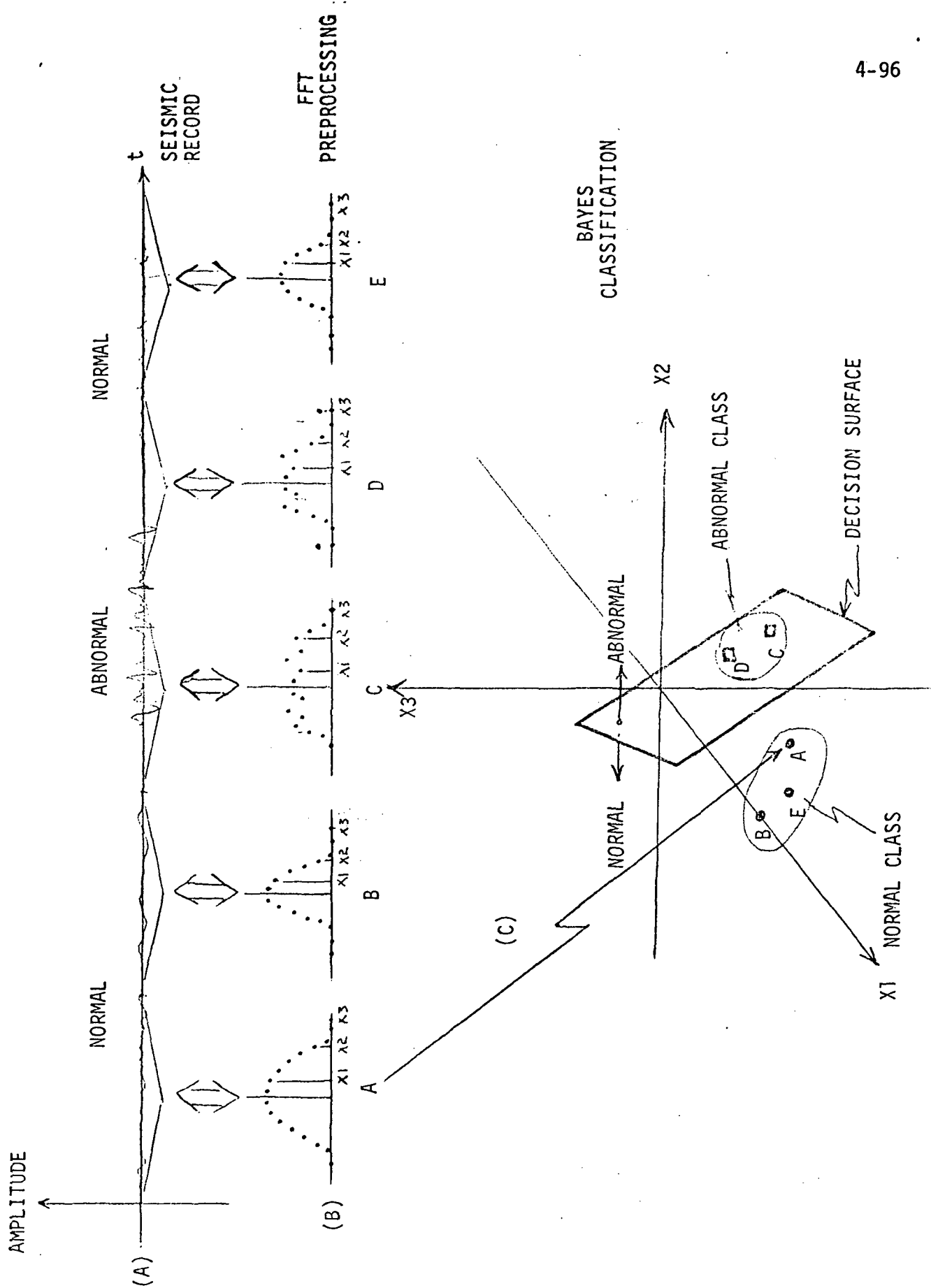


Figure 4.4.4(1) Seismic Record Preprocessing and Classification.

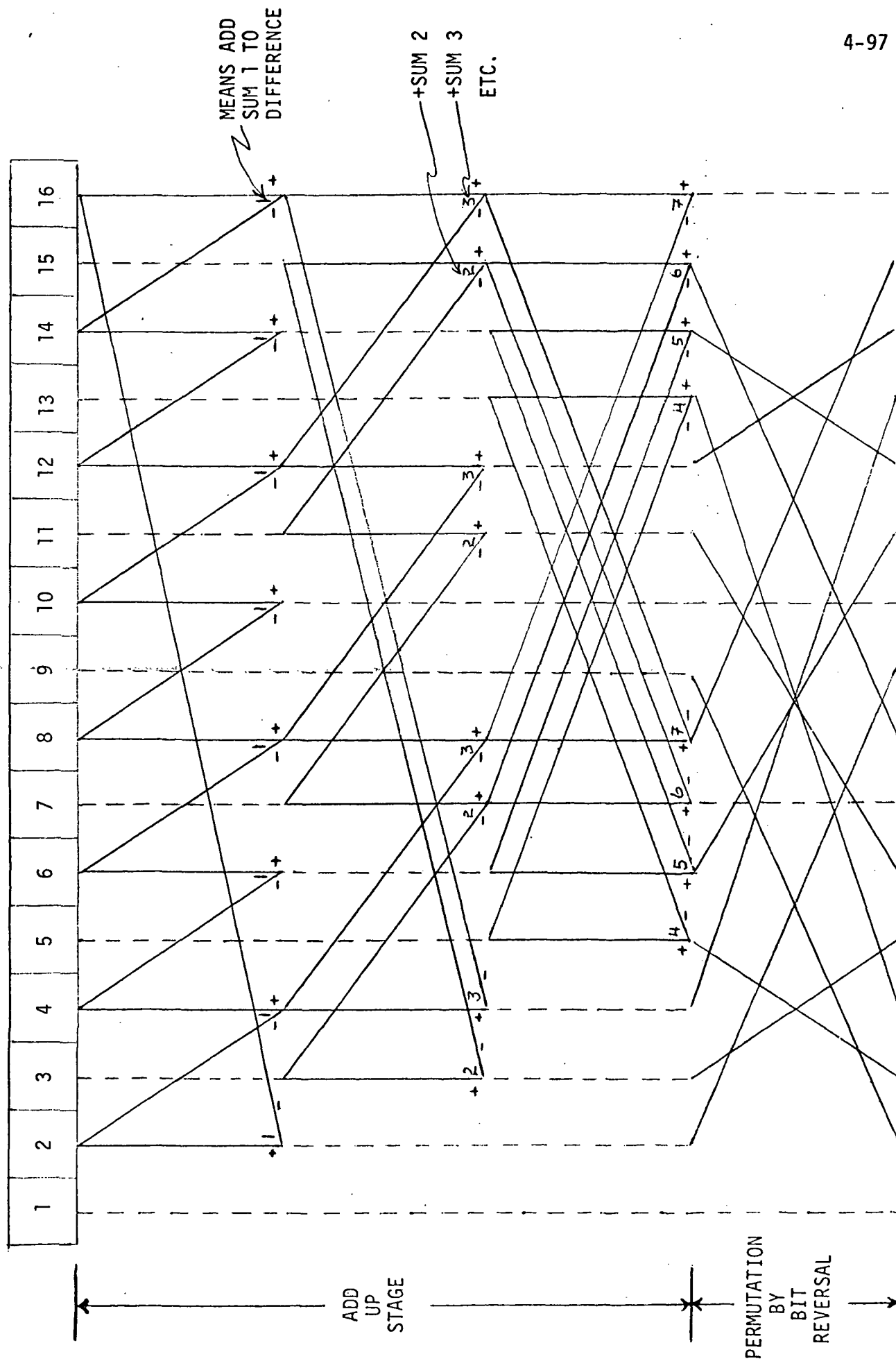
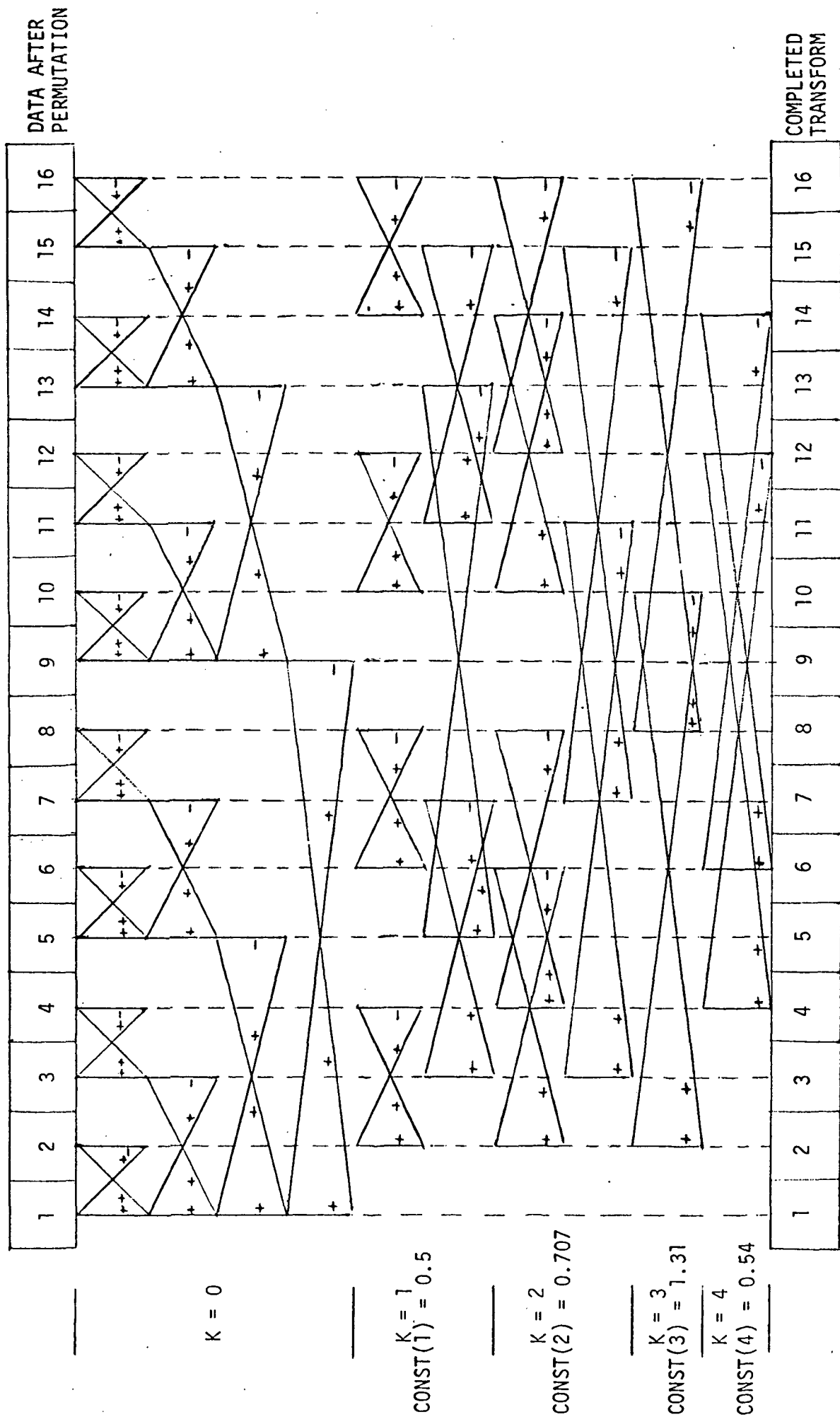


Figure 4.4.4(2) FFT Data Flow Chart



* Multiply term by (0,1)*CONST(K).

break down the operations of the program. Secondly, a program written in FORTRAN (with certain hard-to-implement instructions like DO omitted) can be reduced to minimum complexity and debugged on a logical level before assembly language programming begins. Thus, one is assured of the integrity of the logic before proceeding to assembly language programming. The 8080A fast Fourier transform subroutine (FFT80) requires 1102 bytes of ROM.

After the FORTRAN framework is decided upon, compilation to assembly language can begin. However, assembly by a FORTRAN compiler would be quite unsatisfactory. Very great increases in efficiency and speed can be achieved by taking advantage of the architecture of the 8080A CPU. For example, instead of storing commonly used program variables in memory, which would require time consuming memory read/write operations, these values can be retained and operated upon using internal registers. It is, of course, occasionally necessary to free registers for other uses, which is achieved by pushing and popping the variables on the stack. The total time required for these operations is small compared to the time required for repeated memory accesses.

It would have been preferable to use a word length of 16 bits in this program as it allows greater resolution of incoming signals and removes the fear of overflow errors. This would mean complex data values would be 32 bits long. Unfortunately, the 8080A's double word (16 bit) instruction set is quite limited and very time consuming, while separately manipulating each byte of a double word is even more inefficient. The only reasonable approach then is to use 8-bit values, thus trading resolution for speed. In a few intermediate steps of the program it is necessary to expand to double words, such as in manipulation of the variable SUM in the add up stage of the program. SUM is a mean value which first contains a sum of values and then is divided by the number of values summed. Before division, SUM can easily grow to a value in excess of eight bits in length, so the word length is increased. After division, of course, eight bits is sufficient since an average cannot be larger than the largest of the averaged values.

The 8080A does not provide hardware multiplication, and conventional software multiplication is quite time consuming especially considering the non-integer factors involved. Thus, an alternate multiplication technique has been developed. From the development in Appendix B, it is seen that the weighting factors are pure imaginary and have the values:

$$w_k = 0.5 \operatorname{cosecant}(2\pi k/N)j, \quad k \neq 0, N/2.$$

In Program C(1), $2k$ is defined $M1$ and N is defined $M2$. That is, $w_k = 0.5 \operatorname{cosecant}(\pi M1/M2)j$. The sequence $M1/M2$ is:

$$M1/M2 = m/2^n,$$

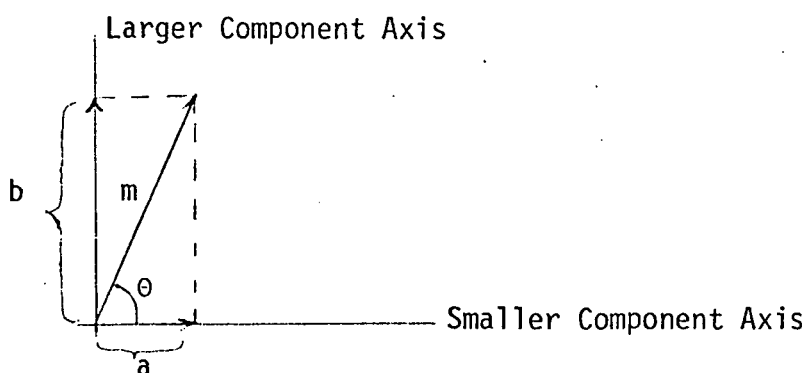
where $m = 1, 3, 5, \dots, 2^{n-1}-1$ for each $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots, (\log_2 N)-1$ (where N = number of points of the transform). For a 64-point transform, $M1/M2$ is the sequence $1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 3/8, 1/16, 3/16, 5/16, 7/16, 1/32, 3/32, 5/32, 7/32, 9/32, 11/32, 13/32, 15/32$. A 16-point transform would require only the sequence $M1/M2 = 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 3/8$. Table 4.4.4(1) delineates the ratios and consequent values of w_k .

The shifts listed in the table are used by the special multiplication subroutine MULCON (TEMP,K). MULCON multiplies by shifting the value in TEMP right or left a number of times and adding or subtracting the shifted value with the original value of TEMP. The number of shifts and the decision as to whether the resulting shifted value is to be added to or subtracted from TEMP is stored in a look-up table (called TABLE in the program). K is the index for TABLE. For example, suppose $K = 10_8$ when MULCON is called. $M1/M2 = 3/8$ and $w_k = 0.54$. The value in TEMP is to be multiplied by 0.54, thus $\text{TABLE}(10_8) = -1, +5$. TEMP is duplicated in TMPROD and shifting proceeds on TMPROD. The 1 value in TABLE indicates that TEMP is to be shifted right one time, yielding 0.5 TEMP , and the minus sign means that the shifted value is to be subtracted from TMPROD. Recalling that $\text{TMPROD} = \text{TEMP}$ originally, we now have $\text{TMPROD} = \text{TMPROD} - \text{TEMP}/2^1 = 0.5 \text{ TEMP}$. Next, TEMP is shifted right five times and the shifted value is added to TMPROD, which equals 0.5 TEMP from the last operation. Five

shifts yield 0.031 TEMP and $\text{TMPROD} = \text{TMPROD} + \text{TEMP}/2^5 = 0.5 \text{ TEMP} + 0.031 \text{ TEMP} = 0.53 \text{ TEMP}$. From Table 4.4.4(1) it can be seen that the exact answer is 0.54; the error is less than 0.01 TEMP . This is usually less than round-off error when working with integer arithmetic.

Upon completion of the FFT portion of the program, the array DATA, which initially held the time domain data, now contains the Fourier series coefficients. These transform values, however, are complex and for the purposes of Bayes classification, only magnitudes are of interest. The normal procedure for finding the magnitude of some value $(a+jb)$ is to take the square root of the sum of the squares of the coefficients, that is, $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$. To speed up this computation for a microprocessor application, a method is used which does not require the squaring and square-root routines; only the division routine is required. This method is described in the following paragraph.

A complex number can be visualized as a vector of magnitude m having two orthogonal components. Since m is always positive, the signs of these components are irrelevant; only the absolute values need be considered. The absolute value of the smaller component is defined here as a and the larger as b , so m is graphed.



It is clear that for these conditions, $45^\circ \leq \theta \leq 90^\circ$. What is needed is some function, $C(a,b)$, such that $a \cdot C = m$, that is, some function that relates the smaller component to the magnitude. It is apparent that $a \cdot \sec(\theta) = m$, but this is a function of θ . The next step is to express θ as a function of a and b . Of course, $\theta = \arctan(b/a)$, so the above expression becomes:

$$a \cdot \sec[\arctan(b/a)] = m, \quad 1 \leq b/a < \infty.$$

TABLE 4.4.4(1)
MULTIPLICATION (MULCON) CONSTANTS

$K_{10}(K_8)$	$M1/M2$	w_K^*	Right Shift	Left Shift
1 (2)	1/2	0.500j	-1,0	
2 (4)	1/4	0.707j	-2,-5	
3 (6)	1/8	1.307j	+2,+4	
4 (10)	3/8	0.541j	-1,+5	
5 (12)	1/16	2.563j	+1,+4	Shift left but do not add to original
6 (14)	3/16	0.900j	-4,-5	
7 (16)	5/16	0.601j	-1,+3	
8 (20)	7/16	0.510j	-1,0	
9 (22)	1/32	5.101j	+3,0	+2
10 (24)	3/32	1.722j	+1,+2	
11 (26)	5/32	1.061j	+4,0	
12 (30)	7/32	0.788j	-2,+5	
13 (32)	9/32	0.647j	-1,+3	
14 (34)	11/32	0.567j	-1,+4	
15 (36)	13/32	0.523j	-1,+5	
16 (40)	15/32	0.502j	-1,0	

$$^*w_K = 0.5 \operatorname{cosecant}(\pi M1/M2)j$$

Thus, $C = \secant[\arctan(b/a)]$. Now the calculation of C for each b and a would be as difficult as the RMS method, but this calculation is not necessary. Instead, a "window" technique is used, whereby a value C is associated with a certain range of values of b/a . In the actual program, the value $8b/a$ is calculated using a standard division routine as this preserves more significant digits in the quotient.

Because it is desired to perform the effective "multiplication" of $C \cdot a$ by successive additions of a , integral values of C are desired. Further, since the value $0.5a$ can be easily found and stored, then C can take the values 1.5, 2, 2.5, 3, ..., 9, 9.5.

What must now be found is the range of values of b/a for which a particular value of C will be chosen. It seems reasonable, where the possible values of C are 2, 2.5, 3, 3.5, etc., that those values of b/a which yield a $2.25 \leq C < 2.75$ should be assigned the value $C = 2.5$, or where $2.75 \leq C < 3.25$, then $C = 3$. Using this method, the absolute error in the resulting magnitude is less than 0.25 times the smallest component. The magnitude, therefore, is an approximation; however, this approximation is adequate for most purposes.

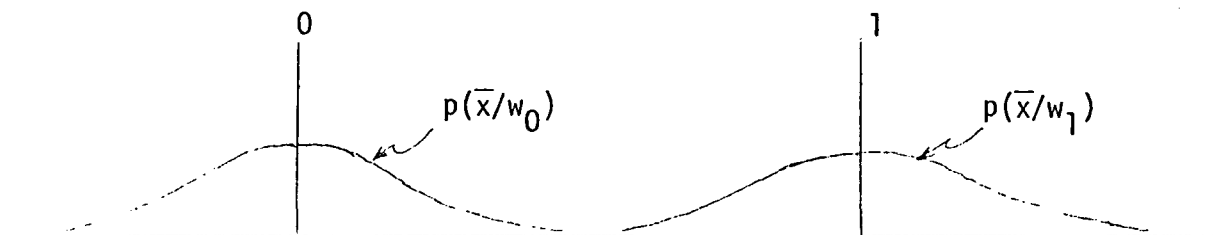
The FFT program composes what can be called the preprocessor part of the classification scheme. It receives the incoming data and finds in it certain parameters or features of interest, in this case frequency components. The next step is to extract those features which can be used to assign the data to a particular class. For FFT80, feature extraction merely means taking certain pre-determined complex frequency components, finding their magnitudes, and storing these magnitudes in a storage array, called MTUDE. The contents of the MTUDE array become the input data to the pattern recognizer stage of the program.

4.4.4.2 The Bayes Classifier - The classification scheme investigated uses the Bayes decision rule. In order to understand how this process works, it is helpful to visualize a space in which every pattern (input value) is a point in space. Thus, the space has as many dimensions as the pattern. For example, suppose the three low frequency components

X_1 , X_2 , and X_3 are being used to classify a signal. Then for each frame pattern, \bar{x} has three components as seen in Figure 4.4.4(1). Each point, $X(F_2, F_3, F_4)$, represents a pattern in three-space. If, after a sufficient number of trials (points plotted), the points are observed to cluster in groups, the Bayes decision rule can be applied. The clustered groups are called classes and some decision must be made as to what constitutes a class boundary. Once the boundaries are defined, each succeeding pattern will be classified according to which side of a boundary it falls upon. The Bayes method does not assure that misclassifications will not be made, but it does assure a minimum average loss in classification; that is, it assures statistical optimization [11]. The average loss in assigning a pattern \bar{x} to a class j given m classes is

$$r_j(\underline{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m L_{ij} p(\bar{x}/w_i) p(w_i)$$

where $p(\bar{x}/w_i)$ is the probability density function of w_i , $p(w_i)$ is the probability of the occurrence of the class w_i and L_{ij} is a "loss matrix" which assigns a loss of zero for correct classifications and a loss of one for misclassifications. A pattern is assigned to the class offering the smallest average loss. Consider a simple example. Suppose we are receiving a signal that has been corrupted by Gaussian noise. The signal is made up of 1's and 0's, so the actual received signal has a probability density



while $p(w_0)$ is the probability of a 0 being sent and $p(w_1)$ is the probability of a 1 being sent. A reliable classifier can be implemented only if the two density curves do not significantly overlap.

In separating seismic signals into normal (background noise) and abnormal (seismic activity) classes, based on spectral composition, several things must be known. The values of $p(\text{normal})$ and $p(\text{abnormal})$ are not critical and can be arbitrarily set to $p(\text{normal}) = 0.9999$ and $p(\text{abnormal}) = 0.0001$. However, calculating values for the probability densities of normal and abnormal classes is more difficult. To an extent these are functions of the location of the seismic sensor. A PDCP located near a highway, for example, would have a noise spectrum and probability density different from one located in a more remote area. The factors affecting the probability density of seismic spectral components are not well understood and there is a dearth of information on the subject [12]. But perhaps the greatest problem encountered in the use of the Bayes classifier on spectral components of signals is that the signals of both classes are largely impulsive in nature. Impulses, when transformed, exhibit all frequencies equally, and, seismic and noise signals, while not pure impulses, are similarly sharp, fast-changing time functions. The problem then is that any given combination of frequencies that can be extracted from PDCP processing will be similar for both noise and seismic signals. That is, their probability density curves overlap to an extent that they cannot be reliably separated.

It is possible, however, to use the Bayes classifier to separate patterns with high frequency (impulsive-type) components from those with only low frequency components. This would enable noise and seismic signals to be differentiated from calm background activity; but if this were all that was required, a simple high pass filter would be the obvious choice.

While the use of Bayes classification of spectral data cannot be removed from consideration, it is suggested that to be of practical value very high resolution (multiple point) transforms are required. In addition, PDCP's must be trained individually with data taken from the sites on which they will be placed.

The implementation of a fast Fourier transform subroutine on an 8080A microcomputer requires the addition of 1.1K of memory. It will execute 16 point transforms in 39 ms, 32 point transforms in 96 ms, and 64 point

transforms in 228 ms at a CPU clock rate of 2 MHz. This demonstrates the feasibility of performing sophisticated and complex mathematical functions remotely on PDCP. With the advent of new microprocessors with increased speed, indirect addressing, and hardware multiply/divide, such as the Texas Instruments TMS 9900, multipoint FFT subroutines will become practical.

REFERENCES

1. Korn, G. A., Minicomputers for Engineers and Scientists, McGraw-Hill, New York, New York, 1973.
2. "Intel 8080 Microcomputer Systems User's Manual," Intel Corporation, July 1975.
3. Lathi, B. P., Communication Systems, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, New York, 1965, pp. 89-91.
4. Hogg, G., "A Data Compression Primer," X-Document X-521-65-320, NASA - Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Maryland, August 1965.
5. Kostopulos, G. K., Digital Engineering, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, New York, 1975, pp. 309-311.
6. Schoep, V. R., "ERTS/GOES Convertible Data Collection Platform," Ball Brothers Research Corporation, Final Report for U. S. Geological Survey EROS Program Office Contract 14-08-0001-1390, 1974.
7. Lichfield, E. W. and Carlson, N. E., "Tropical Wind, Energy Conversion and Reference Level Experiment (TWERLE)," Engineering Design Report No. 2, National Center for Atmospheric Research, November 1974.
8. Coates, J. L., "The Nimbus-F Random Access Measurement System (RAMS)," IEEE Transactions on Geoscience Electronics, Vol. GE-13, No. 1, January 1975, pp. 18-27.
9. Rader, C. M. and N. M. Brenner, "A New Principle for Fast Fourier Transformation," Unpublished notes, 1972.
10. Brigham, Oran E., The Fast Fourier Transform, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1974, p. 175.
11. Tou, J. T. and R. C. Gonzalez, Pattern Recognition Principles, Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1974, p. 113.
12. Bath, Markus, Introduction to Seismology, New York: Halsted Press, 1973, pp. 249-251.

5. PROGRAMMABLE DATA COLLECTION PLATFORM DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM

The University of Tennessee programmable data collection platform development system includes an Intel 8080 based special-purpose micro-computer, a video display terminal, a cassette bulk storage device, and supportive system software.

5.1 UT PDCP DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM HARDWARE

A major objective of the PDCP study is to conceive and describe a programmable data collection platform. To aid in achieving this goal, the UT PDCP development system using the Intel 8080 microprocessor has been built. The UT PDCP is designed to serve as a developmental tool which will aid in determining the feasibility of using a microprocessor to perform all current DCP tasks as well as additional tasks which are not possible with contemporary DCP designs. The UT PDCP includes the capability of simulating the transmitted data messages for typical Landsat, GOES, TIROS-N and TWERLE data collection platforms. In addition, the UT PDCP is interfaced to a video display terminal and keyboard permitting user intervention with the various PDCP demonstration programs. The UT PDCP is not intended to reflect a choice of microprocessors for an actual PDCP; this choice will depend on many factors which are described in Section 6.

The basic hardware system consists of eight 11.43cm x 16.51cm (4.5" x 6.5") printed circuit cards manufactured by Pro-Log Corporation. There are three 4K RAM cards, two 2K ROM cards, one 32-line input card, one 32-line output card, and the CPU card. The eight Pro-Log MPS components cards supply 32 parallel input and output lines for interfacing simulated sensors, the system memory (12K RAM and up to 4K ROM), and the microprocessor chip and support logic. To complete the UT PDCP, four printed circuit cards have been added to the basic Pro-Log system. The additional cards include a dual serial I/O card, an analog interface card, a cassette analog interface and baud-rate timing card, and a utility card containing hardware system start-up, a baud-rate clock and current loop

interface for the video terminal, and single step control logic. All printed circuit cards plug into a small 12.7cm x 25.4cm (5" x 10") rack with a wire-wrapped back plane. The rack is mounted inside an attractive gray cabinet. Power is provided by a small external power supply. The front panel switches are minimal as control of the UT PDCP is intended to be from keyboard commands issued from the video terminal. Jacks for interconnection of the video terminal and cassette recorder are on the rear panel. Simulation of several DCP functions is provided by LED's mounted on the front panel. All connections between the cassette recorder, video display and the UT PDCP are via plug-in cables for ease of interconnection of the three system components. The only additional hardware needed to completely demonstrate the capabilities of the UT PDCP system are a laboratory dual-sweep oscilloscope and a frequency counter with period measurement capability. A description of the operating procedure for these instruments is included in the System Operation Manual. The following sections describe in detail the individual components of the UT PDCP system. A block diagram of the major components of the UT PDCP system hardware is depicted in Figure 5.1(1). Figure 5.1(2) presents a more detailed view of the PDCP microcomputer system components.

5.1.1 Basic Pro-Log System

An 8080 based microprocessor system was selected for the UT PDCP. There are several reasons for this choice. The 8080 microprocessor has an eight bit word size which should be optimal for the PDCP application. Extensive software support packages including resident text editors, assemblers, simulators, BASIC, FOCAL, and FORTRAN are available for the 8080. In addition, cross-assemblers, a cross-simulator, and a FORTRAN cross-compiler are also available. A few recent microprocessors have extensive software support available now; however, at the beginning of this study only the 8080A had extensive software support. Due to the short period allotted for this study, extensive software support was required to enable development of a large number of PDCP programs.

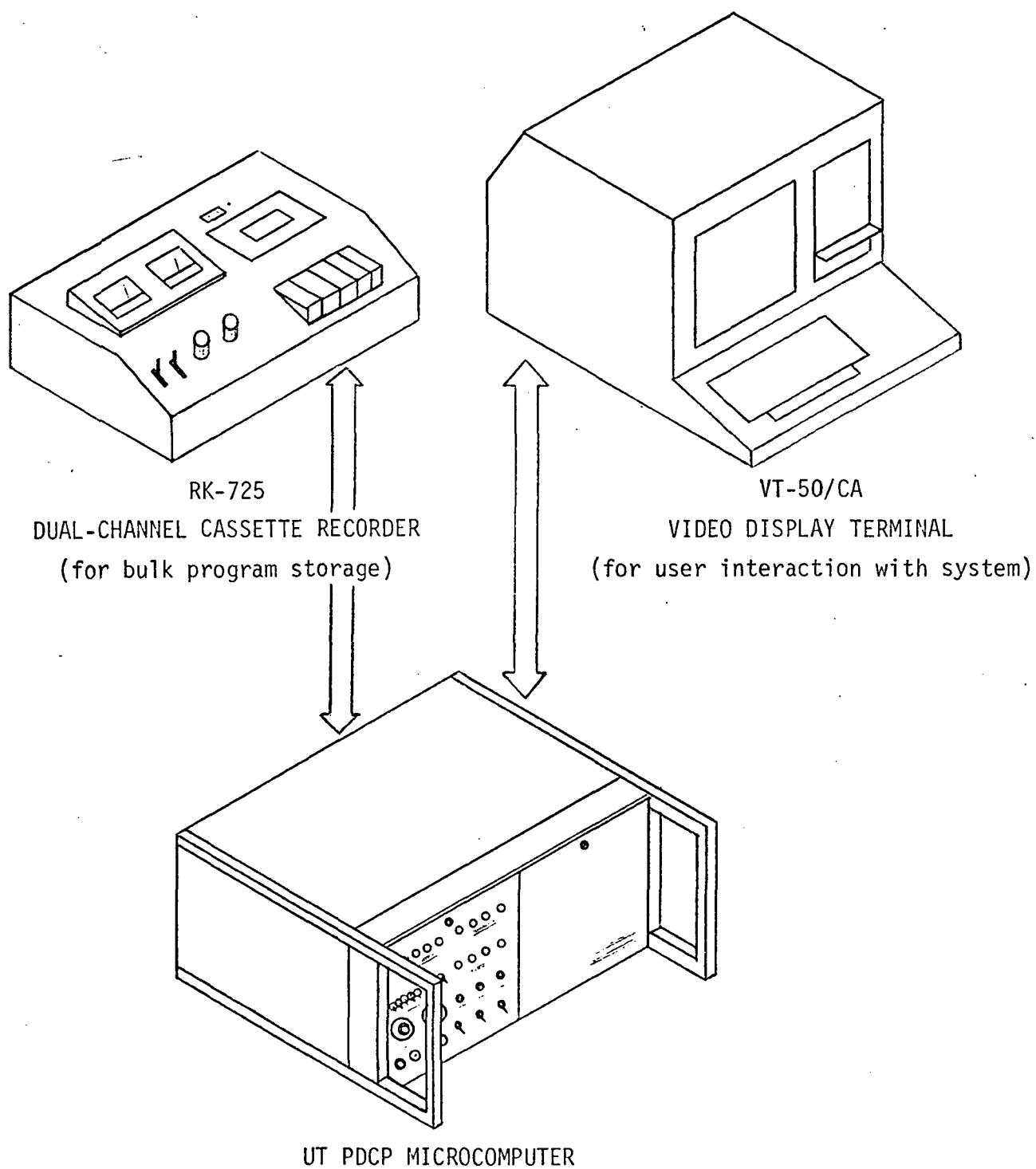


Figure 5.1(1) Major Components of the UT PDCP DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM.

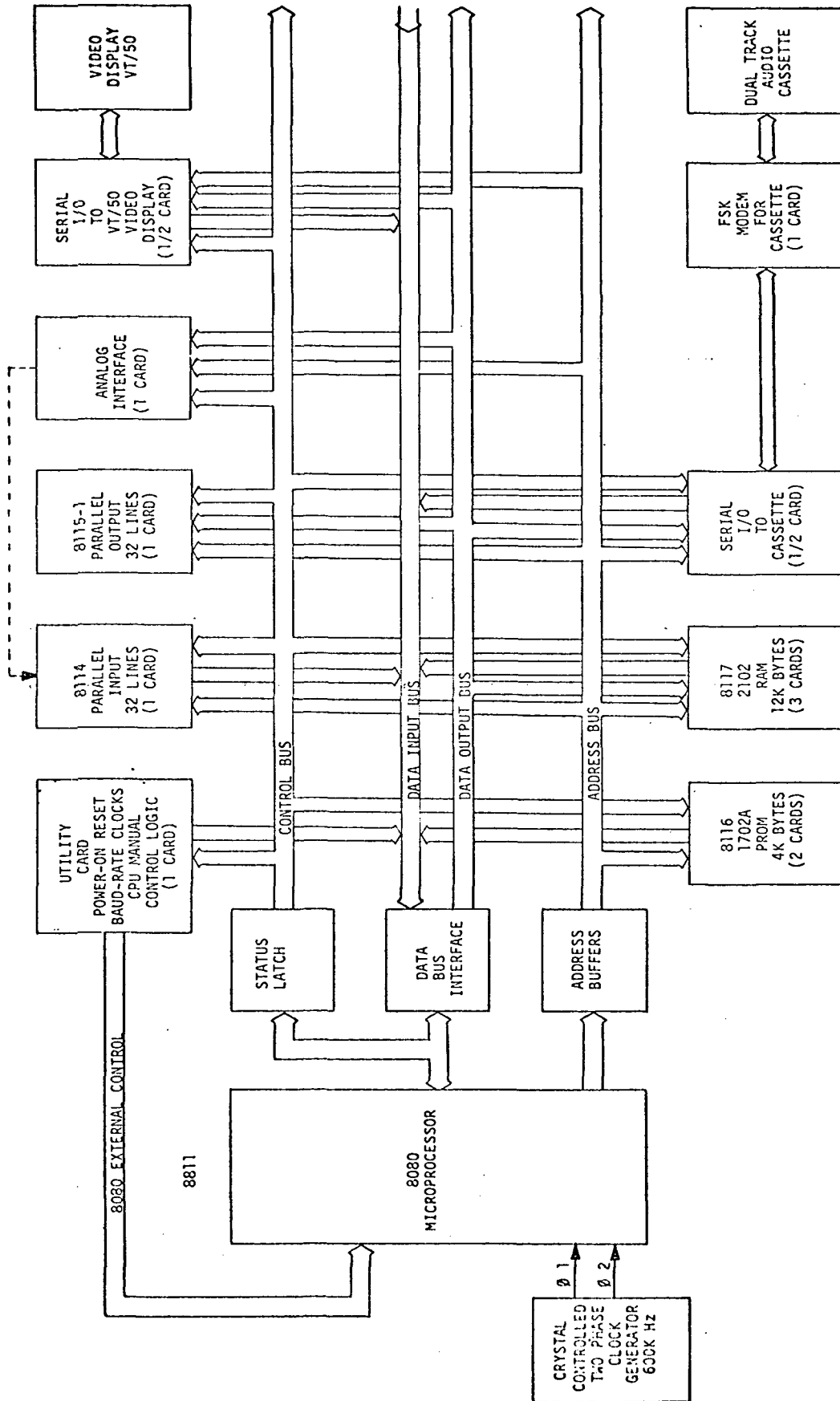


Figure 5.1(2) UT PDCP Microcomputer Development System Block Diagram.

The 8080 based Pro-Log Corporation Microprocessor System (MPS) card components offer a stripped-down, cost-effective basic system. With the addition of four specially designed cards, a powerful PDCP development system is obtained. Other companies were interviewed as a source of basic system hardware; however, on the basis of economics and availability, a decision was made to use a set of eight basic cards made by Pro-Log Corporation and add to them four specially designed cards to create a special purpose microcomputer. Perhaps a better PDCP development system could have been designed starting with only a microprocessor chip set and no commercial cards. However, due to the short time span of this study, the ideal approach had to be compromised. Thus, the Pro-Log MPS cards provide the basic microcomputer system functions, and four add-on cards were designed to form a powerful PDCP development system.

5.1.1.1 Central Processing Unit Card - The major component of the Pro-Log system is the 8811 Central Processing Unit (CPU) card. The CPU card contains an Intel 8080 microprocessor, a two-phase clock, a power-up reset circuit, and data, address, memory, and I/O control logic. A few timing signals needed for special functions were not brought out to the edge connector on the stock CPU card. Thus, these signals were either brought out on spare edge connector pins or generated externally on the utility card (see Section 5.1.3). To facilitate accurate timing for PDCP transmitter demonstration programs, the crystal in the clock circuit for the CPU was changed from 5.0 MHz to 4.8 MHz. The 4.8 MHz clock provides a basic $1.66\overline{66}$ microsecond (μsec) state time for all instructions. This state time was chosen to provide an integer number of states between phases of a Manchester encoded data stream transmitted at the typical DCP rates (100, 400, or 5000 bits per second). Note that a $1.66\overline{66}$ μsec state time is over three times slower than the nominal 500 nanosecond (nsec) state time for a full speed 8080 system. The slower state time also permits the use of low speed, inexpensive memory without the need for wait-cycle generation circuitry.

5.1.1.2 Random-Access Memory Cards - There are three 8117 Random-Access Memory (RAM) cards in the basic Pro-Log system which

provide a total of 12K of RAM. Each RAM card provides 4K by eight bits of static RAM (2102 type, 1.0 μ sec access time). An actual PDCP would not require such a large amount of RAM. The UT PDCP is provided with 12K bytes of RAM to facilitate program development and to provide a storage area for the text of the extensive comments which accompany the PDCP demonstration software. The 12K of RAM permits all the programs of the PDCP demonstration package to be resident simultaneously with room for additional programs.

Although the access time of the 2102 type RAM's used on the three 8117 RAM cards is faster (1.0 μ sec compared to 1.6666 μ sec state time) than the basic state time of the CPU, the frequency of the system clock is limited by the access time of the read-only memory (ROM). A wait-cycle generator circuit could have been added to obtain maximum overall system speed; however, different cycle times for RAM, ROM, and non-memory referencing instructions would have complicated software timing routines. Maximum system speed is not needed to simulate all DCP functions performed by current DCP's. The three 8117 RAM cards are assigned absolute memory addresses 0-12K.

5.1.1.3 Read-Only Memory Cards - The two 8116 Read-Only Memory (ROM) cards provide non-volatile program storage. A powerful system monitor program resides in slightly less than 3.5K of ROM. General purpose binary math subroutines occupy the remaining 0.5K of ROM. Both ROM cards accept up to eight 256 x 8 bit Intel 1702A type PROM's. Thus, each card can accommodate up to 2K of ROM. To keep costs low and still meet maximum data rate specifications, 1.7 μ sec maximum access time 1702A ROM's are used.

The ROM's are ultraviolet-erasable memories and are programmed with the department's Inteltec 8/Mod 80 microcomputer. The two 8116 ROM cards have been assigned the 16-20K absolute memory addresses.

5.1.1.4 Latched Parallel Output Card - Thirty-two parallel latched output lines are provided by a Pro-Log 8115-1 Output Card. The parallel output card is organized as four 8-bit parallel output ports. Execution of an "OUT" instruction causes the eight bits in the accumulator to be

latched into a particular eight-bit output port depending on the port address specified by the "OUT" instruction. The output lines are TTL compatible with a fanout of 10. The four 8-bit parallel output ports are assigned the absolute output port addresses 0-3. Output port 0 is normally used for PDCP data output. Bit 0 of port 0 is normally a serial data output for PDCP transmitter formatted data. Other bits of port 0 provide scope data and synchronization signals as well as front panel LED data displays. Output port 1 is normally used to drive PDCP status displays and PDCP transmitter control signals. For example, four bits are used to drive the front panel PDCP mode displays (Landsat, GOES, TIROS-N, or TWERLE mode). Other bits of output port 1 represent signals to control platform functions such as platform power on and off, RF power on and off, data enable, and data integrator initial conditions control. Presently, output port 2 controls the cassette read/write flag LED, while port 3 is brought out to the rear panel for transmitter timing verification.

An additional parallel output port is provided on the dual serial I/O card (see Section 5.1.2.1) to control the cassette recorder interface.

5.1.1.5 Parallel Input Card - The last member of the Pro-Log MPS components card family is the 8113, 32-line parallel input card. Like the parallel output card, the input card is organized as four 8-bit parallel ports. The parallel input card provides parallel data input. The input ports are assigned absolute addresses 0-3, the same as the parallel output ports. The eight-bit data switch register on the front panel is connected to input port 0.

The switch register serves as simulated parallel sensor data. The eight-bit byte loaded on the data switch register is input to the accumulator of the CPU upon execution of the "IN 0" instruction. The remaining three parallel input ports provide additional simulated sensor inputs.

The dual serial I/O card also has a parallel input port (see Section 5.1.2.1) which is used to input status of the cassette recorder interface, the digital-to-analog converter, and the two Universal Asynchronous

Receiver Transmitter (UART) chips used to interface the serial data of the video display terminal and the cassette recorder.

5.1.2 Special Purpose Interface Cards

The eight 8080 based Pro-Log MPS components cards provide the basic functions of a microcomputer: CPU, memory, and parallel input/output. Four special-purpose interface cards have been added to the basic Pro-Log system to create a powerful special-purpose microcomputer system capable of simulating all the tasks performed by present DCP designs [see Figure 5.1(2)].

The dual serial I/O card was developed to interface the serial data format of the video display terminal to the parallel bus structure of the CPU. The second serial interface provides serial/parallel conversions for the cassette recorder interface to and from the CPU bus. A parallel input and output port is included on the dual serial I/O card to input status from the serial interfaces and cassette recorder and to output control signals to the cassette interface card and the external frequency counter.

The analog interface card provides simulated sensor input of analog data. The card contains an eight-bit digital-to-analog (DAC) converter, a comparator, a voltage-to-frequency converter and the necessary handshake logic to permit software analog-to-digital conversion.

The cassette interface card uses a frequency shift keyed (FSK) technique to store and retrieve data from an inexpensive cassette recorder. A subharmonic of the baud rate clock used to clock data to the cassette is also recorded. Thus, on playback, the subharmonic of the baud rate clock is used to phaselock the baud rate clock decoding the data. This technique permits large speed fluctuations from the cassette with no effect on the error rate of the data.

The general purpose utility card provides several special functions including hardware system start-up; baud rate clock and current loop interface for the video terminal; and single step control logic. A more detailed description of the four special purpose cards is provided below.

5.1.2.1 Dual Serial I/O Card - The dual serial I/O card and the other three special-purpose cards were designed to be directly compatible with the address and data-bus structure of the Pro-Log 8811 CPU card. The bus inputs and outputs are buffered so that the CPU bus driving capability is preserved. Two serial input and two serial output ports are implemented on the dual serial I/O card as well as a parallel input and output port.

The major component of the dual serial I/O card is a MOS, LSI device called a Universal Asynchronous Receiver Transmitter (UART). The UART performs serial-to-parallel and parallel-to-serial data conversion as well as providing status information on the states of the input and output buffers included in the device. The UART can be programmed to receive and transmit five to eight bit words, with or without parity and with one or two stop bits. The UART interfacing the video terminal is hardwire programmed for an eight-bit word, one stop bit and no parity. The second UART interfaces the serial data format of the cassette recorder and is programmed under software control via the parallel output port included on the dual serial I/O card.

The parallel output port also controls the motor of the cassette deck. Also provided on the dual serial I/O card is an eight-bit parallel input port used to input UART status. Port absolute-address decoding is included on the card, making it a stand-alone card except for baud rate clocks needed to drive the UART's. A standard Pro-Log single serial interface card would have required connection to the Pro-Log parallel input and output cards due to inadequate buffering of their serial interface card and the lack of address decoding. The specially designed dual serial I/O card not only provides two serial I/O ports and all the CPU handshaking required, but it is independent of the parallel I/O cards thus freeing all 64 parallel I/O lines for special purpose use.

The serial I/O data absolute port address assignment for the video display terminal is port 7. Input status and output cassette control and UART programming has been assigned to port 6.

5.1.2.2 Analog Interface Card - The analog interface card contains an eight-bit CMOS digital-to-analog converter (DAC), a comparator, a voltage-to-frequency converter, and CPU handshake logic. The eight-bit DAC and comparator are used in a software successive approximation analog-to-digital conversion technique. The voltage-to-frequency converter provides a second, less expensive technique for analog-to-digital conversion. The frequency output is counted with a software frequency counter routine resulting in a digital conversion of the analog input. The software routines for the successive approximation analog-to-digital conversion (ADC) and the voltage-to-frequency to digital conversion are included in PROM.

5.1.2.3 Cassette Analog Interface and Baud Rate Clock Card - The audio interface to and from the cassette recorder is provided by the cassette analog interface and baud rate clock card. Serial data from the cassette serial data output port of the dual serial I/O card is converted to AFSK tones of 4,500-Hz (space tone) and 5,500-Hz (mark tone). The AFSK signal is created on the cassette analog card and is recorded on the right channel of the cassette recorder. In playback, the recovered AFSK tones from the right channel are converted back to serial TTL compatible levels with an EXAR-210 FSK demodulator integrated circuit. The recovered serial data from the cassette analog card is then applied to the dual serial I/O card's cassette serial input port.

Simultaneous recording of a 600-Hz tone on the left channel is provided by a baud rate timing circuit on the cassette analog and baud rate timing card. A master clock frequency of 57,600-Hz is divided down to 600-Hz. The divider chain provides optional baud rates of 300, 600, 1200, and 1800 baud. The 1200 baud clock was selected for reliable, fast data recording.

The master 57,600-Hz clock is derived from two sources. In record, a 555 Timer IC operating as a fixed frequency astable oscillator supplies

the master clock frequency. In playback, the recovered 600-Hz subharmonic tone is used to phase-lock a VCO to 96 times the recovered 600-Hz tone. The synthesized recovered baud rate clock provides timing for the serial decoding of recovered data. Since the recovered baud rate timing suffers approximately the same timing errors as the recovered data, overall serial data decoding is relatively immune to timing errors due to the speed variations of an inexpensive cassette recorder.

5.1.2.4 General-Purpose Utility Card - This card contains:

1. Hardware monitor start-up circuit.
2. Baud rate clock for the video display terminal.
3. TTY current interface for the video display terminal.
4. Single step and other control logic.

A single push button switch is used to activate a hardware start-up circuit. In addition, a power-up circuit on the CPU card also activates the start-up circuit so that application of power starts the system.

The dual serial I/O card provides TTL logic level serial data. The utility card interfaces the standard 20mA current loop of the video display terminal to the TTL logic levels of the dual serial I/O card. A baud rate clock for the video terminal is included on the utility card providing switch selectable standard baud rates.

Synchronous run, wait, and single step logic is provided for hardware control of the UT PDCP. In addition, a special "slow-run" circuit is provided to permit slow execution of a program. This feature is particularly useful for demonstrating PDCP transmitter routines.

5.1.3 Miscellaneous Hardware Components of the UT PDCP Development System

The eight Pro-Log MPS components cards and the four special purpose interface cards plug into a small 12.7cm x 25.4cm (5" x 10") rack with

wire-wrapped edge connectors. The cards are powered by three voltages (+5, +12, and -9 volts) obtained from two commercial short-circuit proof power supply modules which were made specifically for the Pro-Log MPS components cards. The analog interface card also utilizes a -12 volt power supply which was added to the system.

An attractive gray cabinet houses the small rack containing the 12 system cards. The AC power supply is external and connected via a long flexible cable. The front panel of the cabinet contains a minimum number of switches and displays in an effort to simplify use of the UT PDCP system. A set of eight switches provides a fixed value data input source and is useful in simulating a sensor data source. The value toggled on the data switch register is input to the accumulator of the CPU upon execution of an "IN Ø" instruction. Other switches on the front panel include wait, single step, slow-run, start, power-on, and cassette motor-on. The function of these switches is explained in the System Operation Manual. Several LED's are included on the front panel to simulate special functions being performed by PDCP software routines. Finally, BNC-type jacks located on the front panel are used to display signals on an external oscilloscope, and one jack can be connected to an external frequency counter to provide timing verification of PDCP functions. The LED indications and signals appearing at the BNC jacks are explained in detail in the System Operation Manual.

The rear panel of the UT PDCP contains a jack for interconnection of the cassette recorder. Another connector provides interconnection to the video-display terminal. A baud rate select switch for the serial teletype interface also appears on the rear panel. The terminal baud rate switch allows connection of a hard copy teleprinter (such as an ASR-33) in place of the video terminal in the event hard copy is desired.

User interaction with the UT PDCP system is provided by a Digital Equipment Corporation VT-50/CA video display and data entry terminal. The VT-50/CA communicates via a full-duplex serial TTY current loop. A TTY current loop interface is included on the general-purpose utility card. Full duplex operation is maintained to achieve maximum versatility of the VT-50/CA. The VT-50/CA provides an 80-character per line, 12 line

alpha-numeric display and a multimode ASCII two-key rollover keyboard.

The connector feeding the VT-50/CA could be used to operate any other ASCII TTY 20mA current-loop device such as the industry standard low-speed ASR-33. Most applications for the UT PDCP system are best suited to a high-speed video terminal with cursor control like the DEC VT-50/CA; however, hard copy of program listings and data can be obtained using an ASR-33 teletype if desired.

Several cassette recorders were tested for suitability as a bulk program storage device. Of all the recorders tested, the Lafayette RK-725 stereo cassette deck exhibited the best frequency response (approximately twice the frequency response of all other units tested). Since a speaker and high-power audio amplifier are not needed, a cassette deck is preferable to a cassette player. The high-frequency data audio tones for the cassette interface take advantage of the high-frequency response of the Lafayette RK-725. Higher frequency AFSK tones reduce jitter from the phase locked loop demodulator. Also, having two channels permits excellent isolation between the AFSK tones and the baud rate subharmonic tone. No filter is required to separate the tones as would be the case for a monaural recorder. Frequency jitter on playback (a common problem of inexpensive recorders) was not substantial and as discussed in Section 5.1.2.3, a 600-Hz baud rate subharmonic tone recording is used to eliminate timing errors in decoding the data.

In summary, the hardware for the UT PDCP development system consists of a special purpose 8080-based microcomputer, a DEC VT-50/CA video terminal, and a cassette recorder and interface for program storage.

5.2 UT PDCP DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM SOFTWARE PACKAGE

To develop a large number of PDCP demonstration programs in the short time period of this study, software support must be extensive. At the beginning of this research period, the only microprocessor family possessing substantial software support was the Intel 8080 microprocessor

family. Since then, several companies have second-sourced the 8080 including improved versions. Several software firms have also added software support. Intel's user's library contains many useful programs, including a Macro Cross Assembler which runs on the DEC PDP-11 minicomputer. Dr. Steve Olsen of the University of Utah supplied a paper tape of his cross assembler, and all of the PDCP programs written during the research period were assembled on the department's PDP-11/40 using a modified version of Dr. Olsen's cross assembler.

Microcomputer software is often developed using the hexadecimal or octal number systems. The PDCP programs developed on the PDP-11/40 use an octal format whereas standard Intel 8080 software is provided in a hexadecimal format. In addition, non-programmers may not be familiar with either hexadecimal or octal and, thus, would prefer to work in decimal. To facilitate the development of PDCP programs a multiradix system monitor was developed for the UT PDCP development system. This monitor will execute commands in octal, hexadecimal, or decimal. For example, programs can be listed in any of the three radices.

The PDCP resident system monitor provides several key functions for the operation of the UT PDCP system. Examination and modification of memory contents, cassette storage and retrieval of bulk data, radix conversions, and program execution commands with debugging techniques are among the many system monitor functions which have been incorporated under this study. In addition, a special keyboard assembler command permits programming of the UT PDCP directly from the keyboard using standard Intel instruction mnemonics. Finally, memory contents may be displayed symbolically using a special list symbolic command. The PDCP resident monitor resides in non-volatile ROM and is available immediately on system start-up. The two 8116 Pro-Log PROM cards contain the entire PDCP system monitor. The System Operation Manual support software section describes in detail the resident monitor software and commands.

The system monitor requires about 3.5K of the available 4K of PROM. The remaining 0.5K of PROM contains general purpose PDCP subroutines. Having these often used subroutines resident in non-volatile memory

simplifies source program writing as the routines are simply called when needed instead of repeating the source code of the entire subroutine. Source listings and explanations of these PDCP subroutines are described in the System Operation Manual support software section.

6. FUTURE PDCP SYSTEMS

The last five years have witnessed the birth, development, and application of the microprocessor. It is difficult to accurately predict what will happen during the next five years in this field. Semiconductor manufacturers are already working on third-generation microprocessors. The designers of data collection system platforms should have available to them a prediction or reasonable projection of the future characteristics and capabilities of the microprocessor if a programmable data collection platform is to be considered. The purpose of this section of the report is to provide a method of microprocessor selection and to furnish the designer with a microprocessor capability forecast for the next five-year period.

6.1 EVALUATION OF AVAILABLE MICROPROCESSORS

The research proposal for this contract projected the source-destination matrix [1] for evaluation of microprocessor instruction sets. In this technique, an instruction is considered as the transfer of data from a selected source to a selected destination. By constructing a matrix in which the sources are in rows and the destination in columns, the instruction set and functional operations of the microprocessor can be depicted in a concise format. However, the source-destination matrix has two significant disadvantages. First, no accepted methods exist for evaluating or establishing a performance measurement for the microprocessor from the source-destination matrix such that a comparison of different microprocessors can be made. Secondly, the source-destination matrix does not integrate other system characteristics into the evaluation.

Present trends in system evaluation are toward the development of classification and performance measures which integrate all the operating characteristics of a system. For a microprocessor system, this includes system constraints, hardware organization, memory hierarchy, software structures, and application directorates. In fact, most of these considerations can be represented by the following functional form:

$$\text{Performance Measure} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} f(\text{system constraints,} \\ \text{application constraints,} \\ \text{software constraints}) .$$

System constraints include power, weight, size, and speed considerations, while application constraints focus on the specific computational tasks to be executed. Thus, application constraints more clearly define the capability of various microprocessors to meet computational requirements. Software constraints are imposed by the failure to provide software support for the system. For instance, new applications are difficult to program and implement for a microprocessor system with no cross assembler, editor, or simulator.

This research has directed effort toward generating performance measures relating to system, application, and software constraints. A systematic procedure for generating a performance measure is implemented by constructing a system for matrices relating these constraints to the different microprocessors. Consider the following matrix form:

Constraints	Importance Weighting Matrix	μP_1	μP_n
System	\bar{W}_1	\bar{R}_{11}	\bar{R}_{n1}
Application	\bar{W}_2	\bar{R}_{12}	\bar{R}_{n2}
Software	\bar{W}_3	\bar{R}_{13}	\bar{R}_{n3}

\bar{W}_i is a weighting matrix associated with the importance of a particular constraint; whereas, \bar{R}_{ji} is a rating or measure matrix for μP_j (the j th microprocessor) which evaluates the capability of the microprocessor to satisfy the conditions imposed by the constraint. The performance measure, PM_j , for μP_j is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 PM_j &\stackrel{\Delta}{=} [\bar{W}]' [\bar{R}_j] \\
 &= [\bar{W}_1 \ \bar{W}_2 \ \bar{W}_3]' \begin{bmatrix} \bar{R}_{j1} \\ \bar{R}_{j2} \\ \bar{R}_{j3} \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^3 \bar{W}_i \bar{R}_{ji} .
 \end{aligned}$$

Within each general constraint there are numerous conditons for which the measure matrix, \bar{R}_{ji} , must be established. For instance, consider the submatrix formed for the general system constraints in Table 6.1(1). A weighting factor, \bar{W}_{ji} , is associated with the importance of the i th parameter. In evaluating a given microprocessor, a measure (r_{j1i}) of the ability of the microprocessor to satisfy the parameter requirement can be established. Similar submatrices are formed for the applications constraints of Table 6.1(2) and the software constraints of Table 6.1(3).

To provide an example of this method for microprocessor evaluation, a comparsion of the INTEL 8080A and RCA COSMAC microprocessors is developed. In generating each measure matrix, the difference in performance measures is the dominant consideration. The absolute values of the measures would be adjusted as additional information about other microprocessor families is included. Each measure value is established on a scale from 1 to 100. The larger measure values indicate the microprocessor to be more suitable in satisfying the parameter constraints.

If a large number of microprocessors are included in the evaluation, the system lends itself to computer implementation for bookkeeping purposes. A computer with higher-order language capability and containing matrix multiplication features such as APL is ideally suited for the bookkeeping task. Changes in absolute value of the measures can be easily entered and the performance measures can be quickly recomputed.

TABLE 6.1(1)
SYSTEM CONSTRAINTS

Parameter	Weighting Matrix \bar{w}_j	Measure Matrix \bar{r}_{j1}
Power Consumption	w_{11}	r_{j11}
Number of Power Supplies	w_{12}	r_{j12}
Weight	w_{13}	r_{j13}
Size	w_{14}	r_{j14}
Cost	w_{15}	r_{j15}
Minumum System Complexity	w_{16}	r_{j16}
Availability of MSI and LSI Support Logic	w_{17}	r_{j17}
Second Sourcing	w_{18}	r_{j18}

TABLE 6.1(2)
APPLICATION CONSTRAINTS

Parameter	Weighting Matrix \bar{W}_2	Measure Matrix \bar{R}_{j2}
INSTRUCTION SET		
Arithmetic Inst.		
ADD, SUB, AND, EX-OR, OR	W_{21}	r_{j21}
Multiply Divide	W_{22}	r_{j22}
Addressing Modes	W_{23}	r_{j23}
Subroutine Linkage	W_{24}	r_{j24}
Bit Manipulation	W_{25}	r_{j25}
I/O Operations	W_{26}	r_{j26}
Conditional Inst.	W_{27}	r_{j27}
MICROPROCESSOR ORGANIZATION		
Accumulators, Working Registers	W_{28}	r_{j28}
Hardware, Software Stack	W_{29}	r_{j29}
Control	W_{2A}	r_{j2A}
Interrupt Structure Software, Trap Vector	W_{2B}	r_{j2B}
BENCH MARK PROGRAMS		
Program Storage	W_{2C}	r_{j2C}
Execution Time	W_{2D}	r_{j2D}

TABLE 6.1(3)
SOFTWARE CONSTRAINTS

Parameter	Weighting Matrix	Measure Matrix
	\bar{W}_3	\bar{R}_{j3}
Resident Assembler	W_{31}	r_{j31}
Resident Editor	W_{32}	r_{j32}
Cross Assembler	W_{33}	r_{j33}
Simulator	W_{34}	r_{j34}
PL-1	W_{35}	r_{j35}
FORTRAN	W_{36}	r_{j36}
BASIC	W_{37}	r_{j37}
Other High-Level Languages	W_{38}	r_{j38}

The system measure matrices, \bar{R}_{I1} and \bar{R}_{R1} , from Table 6.1(1) for the INTEL 8080A and the RCA COSMAC is determined to be

$$\bar{R}_{I1} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{I11} \\ r_{I12} \\ r_{I13} \\ r_{I14} \\ r_{I15} \\ r_{I16} \\ r_{I17} \\ r_{I18} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 20 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 60 \\ 50 \\ 75 \\ 90 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{R}_{R1} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{R11} \\ r_{R12} \\ r_{R13} \\ r_{R14} \\ r_{R15} \\ r_{R16} \\ r_{R17} \\ r_{R18} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 95 \\ 100 \\ 90 \\ 60 \\ 55 \\ 80 \\ 50 \\ 50 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In an attempt to justify a few of the measure values, the following comments are provided. Notice that $r_{I11} = 20$ and $r_{R11} = 95$. The justification of this difference is simple. COSMAC consumes an order of magnitude less power than the 8080A. Next, $r_{I12} = 40$ and $r_{R12} = 100$. The 8080A requires three power supplies while COSMAC requires only one unregulated supply. On the other hand, $r_{I17} = 75$ and $r_{R17} = 50$. INTEL provides support hardware in a family of integrated circuits which is superior to that provided by RCA at this time. There are similar considerations for establishing each measure value in \bar{R}_{I1} and \bar{R}_{R1} .

Next, consider the system constraints performance measure, $SPM_j = \bar{W}_1' \bar{R}_{j1}$. If the weighting matrix, \bar{W}_1 , is chosen as unity,

$$SPM_I = \frac{\bar{W}_1' \bar{R}_{I1}}{\sum W_{1n}} = 60.00$$

and

$$SPM_R = \frac{\bar{W}_1' \bar{R}_{R1}}{\sum W_{1n}} = 82.86,$$

where the product $\bar{W}_1' R_{ji}$ has been normalized to a value of 100 for the ideal microprocessor by dividing the result by the sum of the system constraint weights, $\sum W_{1n}$.

COSMAC makes a somewhat better showing; however, a more realistic weighting matrix for DCP applications is

$$\bar{W}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} W_{11} \\ W_{12} \\ W_{13} \\ W_{14} \\ W_{15} \\ W_{16} \\ W_{17} \\ W_{18} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 \\ 5 \\ 3 \\ 1 \\ 10 \\ 8 \\ 8 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}.$$

W_{11} is weighted more heavily than all other factors combined since power consumption is the most important consideration. Among the remaining system constraints, the availability of second sources for the microprocessor is the most important since this provides some protection against long delivery delays and premature removal of the product from the market. $W_{15} = 10$, indicating cost is not as important when comparing microprocessor-based systems. This weight could become increasingly more important if a microprocessor-based PDCP was being compared to a hardwired DCP.

Using the more realistic choice of weights for the weighting matrix, the system performance measures become

$$SPM_I = 35.90$$

and

$$SPM_R = 84.47 .$$

The superiority of COSMAC to satisfy system constraints in PDCP applications becomes more evident.

Generating the measure matrix, \bar{R}_{j2} , for the application constraints of Table 6.1(2) yields the following two matrices:

$$\bar{R}_{I2} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{I21} \\ r_{I22} \\ r_{I23} \\ r_{I24} \\ r_{I25} \\ r_{I26} \\ r_{I27} \\ r_{I28} \\ r_{I29} \\ r_{I2A} \\ r_{I2B} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \\ 70 \\ 95 \\ 40 \\ 50 \\ 90 \\ 80 \\ 80 \\ 80 \\ 90 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{R}_{R2} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{R21} \\ r_{R22} \\ r_{R23} \\ r_{R24} \\ r_{R25} \\ r_{R26} \\ r_{R27} \\ r_{R28} \\ r_{R29} \\ r_{R2A} \\ r_{R2B} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \\ 70 \\ 60 \\ 35 \\ 80 \\ 75 \\ 65 \\ 40 \\ 80 \\ 50 \end{bmatrix}$$

The measures relating to bench mark programs are not included since programs for COSMAC have not been sufficiently developed to provide a realistic comparison. Note that $r_{I22} = 0 = r_{R22}$. Neither microprocessor provides a hardware multiply or divide at the present time. Since the 8080A has superior subroutine linkage, $r_{I24} = 95$ and $r_{R24} = 60$. On the other hand, COSMAC provides for better I/O communications; therefore, $r_{I26} = 50$ and $r_{R26} = 80$. The stack operations of the Intel 8080A are far superior to those of COSMAC, resulting in $r_{I29} = 80$ and $r_{R29} = 40$.

Considering the importance of the measure in the application constraints of PDCPs, the weighting matrix, \bar{W}_2 , is determined to be

$$\bar{W}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} W_{21} \\ W_{22} \\ W_{23} \\ W_{24} \\ W_{25} \\ W_{26} \\ W_{27} \\ W_{28} \\ W_{29} \\ W_{2A} \\ W_{2B} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 \\ 20 \\ 75 \\ 75 \\ 75 \\ 65 \\ 55 \\ 50 \\ 60 \\ 60 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix} .$$

The comparison of the application constraints performance measure, $APM_j = \frac{\bar{W}_2' \bar{R}_{j2}}{\sum W_{2n}}$ for the two microprocessor yields

$$APM_I = \frac{\bar{W}_2' \bar{R}_{I2}}{\sum W_{2n}} = 74.77$$

and

$$APM_R = \frac{\bar{W}_2' \bar{R}_{R2}}{\sum W_{2n}} = 65.88 .$$

These results indicate that the Intel 8080A is a better choice in satisfying application constraints.

Finally, the measure matrices for the software constraints of Table 6.1(3) are determined.

$$\bar{R}_{I3} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{I31} \\ r_{I32} \\ r_{I33} \\ r_{I34} \\ r_{I35} \\ r_{I36} \\ r_{I37} \\ r_{I38} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 90 \\ 90 \\ 90 \\ 90 \\ 60 \\ 50 \\ 90 \\ 50 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\bar{R}_{R3} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{R31} \\ r_{R32} \\ r_{R33} \\ r_{R34} \\ r_{R35} \\ r_{R36} \\ r_{R37} \\ r_{R38} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 80 \\ 80 \\ 95 \\ 90 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

At the present time, INTEL provides better software support than RCA, especially in compiler design. However, compiler design is less important in PDCP applications than the availability of a cross assembler and simulator programs. Thus, the weighting matrix, \bar{W}_3 , for software constraints is determined to be

$$\bar{W}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} W_{31} \\ W_{32} \\ W_{33} \\ W_{34} \\ W_{35} \\ W_{36} \\ W_{37} \\ W_{38} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 75 \\ 75 \\ 90 \\ 80 \\ 30 \\ 10 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} .$$

The software constraints performance measure for the two microprocessors is

$$SOPM_I = \frac{\bar{W}_3' \bar{R}_{I3}}{\sum W_{3n}} = 86.29$$

and

$$SOPM_R = \frac{\bar{W}_3' \bar{R}_{R3}}{\sum W_{3n}} = 76.87 .$$

The software support performance measure of the 8080A is not really that superior to COSMAC.

Linearly combining the results generated from these considerations, the overall performance measure for the two microprocessors is evaluated to be

$$PM_I = \frac{\bar{W}' \bar{R}_I}{\sum W_i} = 65.65$$

and

$$PM_R = \frac{\bar{W}' \bar{R}_R}{\sum W_i} = 75.74 .$$

The RCA 1802's performance measure is only ten percentage points higher than the INTEL 8080's. However, in PDCP applications, system constraints will generally be considerably more important than either application or software constraints. A typical importance weighting matrix for the PDCP application is

$$\bar{W} = \begin{bmatrix} 100 \\ 40 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix}$$

The overall performance measures for the 8080A and 1802 microprocessors are

$$PM_I = 51.92$$

and

$$PM_R = 78.87 .$$

The 1802 now has a clear performance advantage of nearly 27 percentage points.

The attempt here is not to conclusively state which of the available microprocessors is better suited for a microprocessor-based PDCP, but rather, to emphasize this technique as a method for evaluating and comparing microprocessors for suitability in PDCP applications. Performance measures derived using this technique are primarily intended to aid in choosing between two or more microprocessors which are known to meet the basic constraints of the application. Invalid results can be obtained if one attempts to make an "apples to oranges" type comparison by failing to eliminate machines with unacceptable characteristics before proceeding with the performance evaluation. For example, a bipolar

microprocessor should be eliminated on the basis of unacceptable power consumption even though program execution time would be much shorter than for a CMOS or NMOS microprocessor. This limitation of the performance evaluation procedure is not a significant handicap since the initial screening process is relatively easy to accomplish. The final screening, which is much more difficult to perform, can be simplified by applying the performance evaluation procedure developed in this section.

6.2 TECHNOLOGY FORECAST

In selecting whether to include the programmable feature in a data collection platform system, the designer should have available any projections which indicate the characteristics and capabilities of semiconductor devices for a period covering the next five to ten years. While these predictions are difficult to obtain, reasonably accurate models can be developed which yield satisfactory results over this time span.

There are a number of methods of technology forecasting [2] which will lead to the development of a set of performance characteristics of components during a particular period in the future. These different methods can be reduced to two basic classes of forecasting techniques. One method, called trend forecasting, involves the development of a mathematical model which utilizes past history as a guide for the projection in the future. The second utilizes the judgement of experts in the field to predict the changes in future technology. This is termed intuitive forecasting.

There are essentially two components which will have the greatest effect upon the design of a programmable data collection system. One component is the microprocessor chip itself, and the other is the memory associated with the microprocessor. Already microprocessors are beginning to appear with clock, input/output buffers and control logic on a single chip. There is even some attempt to include a small memory area on the microprocessor substate making a true single-chip microcomputer.

Trend forecasting has predicted that the average computer add time will decrease by one order of magnitude in a decade [3]. Five years from now, one could expect the average computer add time to be one-third that of the present day average add time. The same performance improvement can be expected in microprocessors. The average present day microprocessor has an add time of two microseconds. In five years, the average add time is expected to be 670 nanoseconds.

Semiconductor memories have taken a more dramatic reduction in chip area, power, and cost requirements. The area of the memory cell is decreasing at the rate of one order of magnitude in seven years. Some experts believe that a 128K-bit memory chip could be available in 1980. Therefore, it seems reasonable to predict that a microprocessor with a 600-nanosecond add time and 8K of eight-bit words could be fabricated on a single chip within five years. The cost of such a device will be in the \$25 range. With powerful computational capabilities such as these becoming available in the not too distant future, the programmable data collection platform should be a viable element in data collection systems.

The most promising low power technologies for use on future PDCPs appear to be silicon-on-sapphire CMOS (SOS), closed cell COS/MOS logic (C^2L), and integrated injection logic (I^2L). I^2L is a bipolar circuit design technique which significantly increases the density of bipolar circuits and permits operation at any point along a constant speed-power product line spanning several decades of propagation delay and power consumption. Thus, low power operation can be achieved at the cost of increased propagation delay or speed can be improved if higher power consumption is acceptable. Although future production of low power microprocessor systems using I^2L is feasible, most manufacturers are currently concentrating I^2L development efforts in the areas of linear-to-digital interface circuits and combinations of linear and digital processing on a single chip. Many I^2L designs use a level conversion circuit to provide a simple interface between the I^2L I/O signals and standard TTL logic. A CMOS to I^2L interface should also be feasible since most new CMOS designs are capable of driving a TTL load. Thus,

I^2L circuits may provide LSI combinations of digital and analog peripheral functions for future microprocessor based PDCPs.

The standard bulk CMOS process has recently been improved by two different techniques which both have excellent potential for providing future advances in microprocessor systems. Commercial products using SOS and C^2L technologies are already available. SOS integrated circuits are manufactured using many of the standard bulk CMOS processing procedures. The main distinction between SOS and bulk CMOS is that a sapphire substrate is utilized in SOS processing to reduce load capacitance and improve circuit density. Propagation delay is also reduced. High speed, low power, SOS memories which are compatible with the 1802 microprocessor are currently manufactured by RCA. These devices exhibit lower power consumption than bulk CMOS devices for operating speeds above approximately 1KHz but consume more power than bulk CMOS devices in static operation.

The most recent advancement in CMOS processing is the closed cell COS/MOS, or C^2L , process developed by RCA for the 1802 microprocessor. C^2L is a circuit design technique that permits a common source structure for 200 to 300 transistors. The transistor's gate electrode forms a closed circle which provides gate termination and eliminates the need for guardbands. As a result, circuit densities are approximately the same as for SOS. C^2L also results in a higher transconductance-to-drain capacitance ratio. In conjunction with a self-aligned silicon gate which reduces Miller capacitance, C^2L offers significant speed improvements over bulk CMOS. Additional refinements in the C^2L and SOS technologies are expected to provide continued improvements in microprocessors and associated devices which exhibit the low power consumption required by the PDCP application.

REFERENCES

1. Nichols, J., "The Source-Destination Matrix for Instruction Set Presentation," IEEE Spring Computer Conference, San Francisco, California, February 25-26, 1975, pp. 61-63.
2. Bright, J. R., Editor, Technological Forecasting for Industry and Government, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 146-147, 1968.
3. Wintz, et al., "Study of On-Board Processing for Earth Resources Data," Wintek Corp., Lafayette, Indiana, NASA - Ames Contract No. NASA 8327, September 1975.

APPENDIX A

BINARY MATH PACKAGE

APPENDIX A

BINARY MATH PACKAGE

```

000000    ; SHORT MULTI-PRECISION ADD SUBROUTINE
000000    ;
000000    ; THIS SUBROUTINE PERFORMS BINARY ADDITION ON TWO UNSIGNED
000000    ; BINARY NUMBERS. THE 16 BIT NUMBER IN REGISTER PAIR BC IS
000000    ; ADDED TO THE 32 BIT NUMBER STORED IN MEMORY LEAST SIGNIFI-
000000    ; CANT BYTE FIRST BEGINNING AT THE LOCATION SPECIFIED BY THE
000000    ; CONTENTS OF HL. THE 32 BIT SUM IS RETURNED LEAST SIGNIFI-
000000    ; CANT BYTE FIRST BEGINNING IN THE MEMORY LOCATION ADDRESSED
000000    ; BY HL. ALL MACHINE STATUS IS PRESERVED EXCEPT FOR THE ACC
000000    ; AND FLAGS. ON RETURN, CARRY FLAG (CY) = 1 INDICATES
000000    ; AN OVERFLOW OCCURED. THE SUBROUTINE REQUIRES 20 BYTES
000000    ; OF ROM, USES 4 BYTES OF STACK STORAGE (RAM) AND EXECUTES IN
000000    ; 141 STATES. A SHORT FORM NOTATION FOR THE PRECEDING EX-
000000    ; PLANATION IS GIVEN BELOW:
000000    ;
000000    ; (BC) + (MCHLX) ----> MCHLX CY=1 INDICATES OVERFLOW
000000    ; 16 BITS + 32 BITS = 32 BITS -- ACCUMULATOR AND FLAGS
000000    ; DESTROYED. 141 STATES, 20 BYTES ROM, AND 4 BYTES STACK.
000000    ;
000000    ; SMADD:
000000    ; PUSH H ; SAVE STATUS OF HL
000000    ; MOV A,M ; GET LS BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; ADD C ; FORM LS BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; MOV M,A ; STORE LEAST SIG BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; INCX H ; INCREMENT ADDRESS POINTER
000000    ; MOV A,M ; GET 2ND BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; ADC B ; FORM SECOND BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; MOV M,A ; STORE SECOND BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; INCX H ; INCREMENT ADDRESS POINTER
000000    ; MOV A,M ; MOVE NEXT BYTE TO A
000000    ; ACI O ; FORM THIRD BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; MOV M,A ; STORE THIRD BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; INCX H ; INCREMENT ADDRESS POINTER
000000    ; MOV A,M ; MOVE NEXT BYTE TO A
000000    ; ACI O ; FORM MOST SIGNIFICANT BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; MOV M,A ; STORE MS BYTE OF SUM
000000    ; POP H ; RESTORE HL
000000    ; RET ; RETURN
000000    ;

```

ADDRESS	INSTR	OPERAND	COMMENT
000024	PUSH	H	SAVE HL
000024	MOV	A, M	GET LS BYTE
000025	SUB	C	SUBTRACT LS BYTE OF SUBTRAHEND
000026	MOV	M, A	STORE LS BYTE OF DIFFERENCE
000027	INX	H	INCREMENT ADDRESS POINTER
000030	MOV	A, M	GET 2ND BYTE OF MINUEND
000032	SUB	D	SUBTRACT 2ND BYTE OF SUBTRAHEND
000033	MOV	M, A	STORE PARTIAL DIFFERENCE
000034	INX	H	INCREMENT ADDRESS POINTER
000035	MOV	A, M	GET 3RD BYTE OF MINUEND
000036	SBI	O	SUBTRACT BORROW
000036	MOV	M, A	STORE 3RD BYTE OF DIFFERENCE
000040	INX	H	INCREMENT ADDRESS POINTER
000041	MOV	A, M	GET FOURTH BYTE OF MINUEND
000042	SBI	O	SUBTRACT BORROW
000043	MOV	M, A	STORE 4TH BYTE OF DIFFERENCE
000045	POP	H	RESTORE HL
000047	RET		RETURN

Program A(2) Short Multiprecision Subtract Subroutine.

DOUCELL PRECISION ADD WITH MEMORY SUBROUTINE

```

; (BC) + (MCHLD) -> MODEX CY=1 INDICATES OVERFLOW
; 16 BITS + 16 BITS = 16 BITS - ACCUMULATOR AND FLAGS ARE
; DESTROYED. 32 STATES, 11 BYTES ROM, AND 2 BYTES STACK.
;
DADDH:
MOV A,M ; GET LS BYTE FROM MEMORY
ADD C ; ADD LS BYTES
STAX D ; STORE LS BYTE SUM IN MEMORY
INX H ; INCREMENT MEMORY POINTERS
INX D
MOV A,M ; GET MS BYTE FROM MEMORY
ADC B ; ADD MS BYTES
STAX D ; STORE SUM OF MS BYTES IN MEMORY
DCX H ; RESTORE HL TO ORIGINAL VALUE
DCX D ; RESTORE DE TO ORIGINAL VALUE
RET ; RETURN

```

Program A(3) Double Precision Add With Memory Subroutine.


```

000063      DOUBLE PRECISION SUBTRACT WITH MEMORY SUBROUTINE
000063      ;
000063      ; (BC) ... (MCHLD) ...> (MODE) CY=1 INDICATES UNDERFLOW ;
000063      ; 16 BITS ... 16 BITS = 16 BITS ... ACCUMULATOR AND FLAGS ;
000063      ; DESTROYED ... 99 STATES, 11 BYTES ROM, 2 BYTES STACK. ;
000063      ;
000063      DSUBM:
000063      MOV     A,C      ; GET LS BYTE
000063      SUB     M      ; SUBTRACT LS BYTES
000063      STAX    D      ; STORE RESULT IN MEMORY ADDRESSED BY DE
000063      INX     H      ; INCREMENT MEMORY POINTER
000063      INX     D      ; INCREMENT DE POINTER
000063      MOV     A,B      ; GET NEXT BYTE
000063      SBB     M      ; SUBTRACT MEMORY
000063      STAX    D      ; STORE RESULT IN MEMORY ADDRESSED BY DE
000063      DCX     H      ; RESTORE HL TO ORIGINAL VALUE
000063      DCX     D      ; RESTORE DE TO ORIGINAL VALUE
000063      RET
000063
000063      171
000063      226
000063      022
000063      043
000063      023
000063      170
000063      236
000063      022
000063      053
000063      033
000063      311

```

Program A(4) Double Precision Subtract With Memory Subroutine.

```

; DOUBLE PRECISION COMPARE SUBROUTINE
;
; (MCIL>) COMPARED TO (BC)  CY=1 IMPLIES (MCIL>) < (BC)
; Z=1 IMPLIES (MCIL>) = (BC)
;
; ACCUMULATOR AND FLAGS DESTROYED 62-73 STATES, 12
; BYTES ROM, AND 4 BYTES OF STACK USAGE.
;
DCPM:  PUSH  D      ; SAVE DE
        INX  H      ; POINT HL TO MS BYTE OF MEMORY TO BE COMPARED
        MOV  A,M     ; GET MOST SIG BYTE OF MEMORY INTO ACC
        DCX  H      ; POINT HL BACK AT LS BYTE
        CMP  B      ; COMPARE MOST SIG BYTE OF MEM TO B
        JNZ  EXPB    ; MEMORY NOT EQUAL TO BC SO EXIT
        MOV  A,M     ; ELSE TEST LS BYTE
        CMP  C      ; COMPARE LS BYTES
        EXPB:  POP  D      ; RESTORE DE
        RET          ; RETURN

```

000432	045	001
000434	043	
000436	176	
000438	053	
000439	270	
000440	302	
000442	176	
000444	271	
000445	321	
000446	311	

Program A(5) Double Precision Compare Subroutine.

DOUBLE PRECISION MULTIPLY SUBROUTINE

THIS ROUTINE EXPECTS TWO 12-BIT NUMBERS IN THE REGISTER PAIRS DE AND EC. THE PRODUCT IS RETURNED AS A 4-BYTE, 32-BIT NUMBER IN MEMORY AT THE STARTING ADDRESS PRESET IN THE HL REGISTER. ALL CPU STATUS IS PRESERVED. THE PRODUCT IS RETURNED LEAST SIGNIFICANT BYTE AT THE PRESET HL ADDRESS, AND UPWARDS IN MEMORY TO THE MOST SIGNIFICANT BYTE.

73 BYTES ROM, 14 BYTES STACK AND 423-434 MACHINE STATES.

DFMULT:

000076		PUSH	PSW		SAVE ALL CPU STATUS
000077	365	PUSH	B		
000078	305	PUSH	D		
000079	325	PUSH	H		
000080	345	PUSH	E		SAVE FIRST FACTOR ON THE STACK
000081	305	MVI	B,16		PRESET BIT SHIFT COUNT TO 16
000082	006	LXI	H,0		CLEAR HL
000083	041	SHLD	SPAD+32		CLEAR UPPER BYTES OF PARTIAL PRODUCT
000084	042	POP	H		1ST FACTOR ----> HL
000085	341	CALL	DFSHRC		SHIFT FIRST FACTOR RIGHT THRU CARRY
000086	315	PUSH	H		SAVE SHIFTED FACTOR IN STACK
000087	345	LHLD	SPAD+32		GET TWO TOP BYTES OF PRODUCT
000088	052	JNC	DFM2		PRESENT LSB OF 1ST FACTOR NOT A "1"
000089	322	DAD	D		PRESENT LSB OF 1ST FACTOR IS A ONE SO ADD SECOND FACTOR
000090	031	CALL	DFSHRC		SHIFT UPPER PARTIAL PRODUCT RIGHT THRU CARRY
000091	315	SHLD	SPAD+32		SAVE IT IN MEMORY
000092	042	LHLD	SPAD+30		GET LOWER BYTES OF PARTIAL PRODUCT
000093	052	CALL	DFSHRC		SHIFT LOWER BYTES
000094	315	SHLD	SPAD+30		SAVE IN MEMORY
000095	042	DCR	B		DECREMENT SHIFT COUNT
000096	005	JNZ	DFM1		NOT 16TH SHIFT, GO AGAIN
000097	302	POP	H		RESET STACK
000098	341	POP	D		GET ADDRESS TO RETURN PRODUCT IN

000153	321	PUSH	D		; SAVE IN STACK
000154	325	LJLD	SPAD+30		; LOWER PRODUCT BYTES ----> HL
000155	052	XCHG		030	; HL <----> DE
000160	350	MOV	M, E		; MOVE BYTES TO MEMORY
000161	163	INX	H		
000162	043	MOV	M, D		
000163	162	XCHG			; HL <----> DE
000164	350	LJLD	SPAD+32		; GET UPPER BYTES OF PRODUCT
000165	052	XCHG		032	
000170	353	INX	H		
000171	043	MOV	M, E		; PUT UPPER BYTES IN MEMORY
000172	163	INX	H		
000173	043	MOV	M, D		
000174	162	JMP	EXIT		; ALL DONE, RESTORE STATUS AND RETURN
000175	303			104	
000200		DPSHRC: MOV	A, H		; DOUBLE PRECISION SHIFT RIGHT
000201	174	RAR			; OF HL THROUGH THE CARRY SUBROUTINE
000201	037	MOV	H, A		
000202	147	MOV	A, L		
000203	175	RAR			
000204	037	MOV	L, A		
000205	157	RET			
000206	311				

Program A(6) (continued)

```

; DOUBLE PRECISION DIVIDE SUBROUTINE
;
; THIS ROUTINE EXPECTS A 32-BIT NUMBER IN HL AND DIVIDES
; IT BY THE 16-BIT NUMBER IN BC. THE QUOTIENT IS RETURNED
; IN DE WHILE THE REMAINDER IS RETURNED IN HL. THE ORIGINAL
; DIVISOR IS SAVED AND RETURNED IN BC. THE QUOTIENT IS
; ROUNDED-OFF. CY=1 IMPLIES ROUND-OFF OCCURRED.
;
; 64 BYTES ROM + 7 BYTES FROM DPMULT ROUTINE, 8 BYTES STACK USAGE
; AND 3645-8456 MACHINE STATES.
;
DPDIV:
MVI A,17 ; PRESET BIT SHIFT COUNT
DPDIV1: PUSH PSW ; SAVE BITS SHIFT COUNT
CALL DPGSUB ; DOUBLE PRECISION SUBTRACT (HL-BC)
XCHG ; HL <----> DE
CALL DPGHLC ; SHIFT HL LEFT THRU CARRY
XCHG ; HL <----> DE
CALL DPGHLC ; SHIFT HL LEFT THRU CARRY
POP PSW ; GET BITS SHIFT COUNT
DCR A ; DECREMENT SHIFT COUNT
JNZ DPGDIV1 ; NOT 16TH SHIFT, LOOP
PUSH B ; SAVE DIVISOR
PUSH H ; SAVE REMAINDER
MOV L,C ; DIVISOR TO HL
MOV H,D
CALL DPGHRC ; DIVIDE DIVISOR BY TWO
MOV B,H ; DIVISOR/2 ----> BC
MOV C,L
POP H ; RESTORE REMAINDER
PUSH H ; SAVE REMAINDER AGAIN
CALL DPGSUB ; REMAINDER-(DIVISOR/2) ----> HL
JNC DPGDIV2 ; FIRST FRACTION < .5 THEREFORE DON'T ROUNDOFF
INX D ; ELSE ROUND-OFF QUOTIENT

```

000207	076	021	
000207	365		
000211	315	257	000
000212	353		
000215	315	300	000
000216	353		
000222	315	300	000
000225	361		
000226	075		
000227	302	211	000
000232	305		
000233	345		
000234	151		
000235	140		
000236	315	200	000
000241	104		
000242	115		
000243	341		
000244	345		
000245	315	257	000
000250	322	254	000
000253	023		

Program A(7) Double Precision Divide Subroutine.

000254	DPDIV2: POP	H	; RESTORE REMAINDER
000255			
000256	POP	B	; RESTORE DIVISOR
000257			
000258	RET		; RETURN TO CALLING POINT
000259			
000260	DFSUB: MOV	A,L	; FIRST TEST BC<HL?
000261			
000262	SUB	C	
000263			
000264	MOV	A,H	
000265			
000266	SBB	B	
000267			
000268	JNC	DFSUB1	
000269			
000270	CMC		
000271			
000272	RET		
000273			
000274	DFSUB1: MOV	A,L	; IF HERE, BCC=HL SO SUBTRACT
000275			
000276	SUB	C	
000277			
000278	MOV	L,A	
000279			
000280	MOV	A,H	
000281			
000282	SBB	B	
000283			
000284	MOV	H,A	; DIFFERENCE RETURNED TO HL
000285			
000286	STC		; INDICATE SUBTRACTION MADE BY SETTING CARRY
000287			
000288	RET		
000289			
000290	DFSUBLC: MOV	A,L	; DOUBLE PRECISION SHIFT LEFT OF
000291			
000292	RAL		; HL THROUGH THE CARRY SUBROUTINE
000293			
000294	MOV	L,A	
000295			
000296	MOV	A,H	
000297			
000298	RAL		
000299			
000300	MOV	H,A	
000301			
000302	RET		
000303			
000304			
000305			
000306			
000307			
000308			
000309			
000310			
000311			

Program A(7) (continued)

SQUARE ROOT SUBROUTINE

```

000307      ; THIS ROUTINE EXPECTS A MAXIMUM 16 BIT QUANTITY IN HL AND
000307      ; RETURNS THE SQUARE ROOT IN THE ACCUMULATOR. ALL CPU STATUS
000307      ; IS PRESERVED EXCEPT ACCUMULATOR AND FLAGS. THE ROOT IS
000307      ; ROUNDED-OFF TO PROVIDE A MORE ACCURATE INTEGER RESULT.
000307      ;
000307      ; 34 BYTES ROM + 24 BYTES FROM DFDIV ROUTINE, 14 BYTES OF STACK ;
000307      ; USAGE AND 4336-4746 MACHINE STATES.
000307      ;
SQRT:
000307      PUSH B      ; SAVE CPU STATUS
000307      PUSH D
000307      PUSH H
000307      LXI B,0      ; 0 ----> B 0 ----> C
000307      LXI D,0      ; CLEAR DE
000307      SQRT1:  PUSH B      ; SAVE SHIFT COUNT AND PARTIAL ROOT
000307      PUSH H      ; SAVE NUMBER
000307      XRA A      ; CLEAR A AND CARRY
000307      MOV L,B      ; PARTIAL ROOT TO L
000307      MOV H,A      ; 0 ----> H
000307      CALL DPHLC   ; SHIFT HL LEFT INTO CARRY
000307      STC          ; SET CARRY
000307      CALL DPHLC   ; SHIFT 1 INTO HL
000307      MOV B,H      ; PUT HL INTO BC
000307      MOV C,L
000307      POP H        ; RESTORE NUMBER
000307      CALL DPHLC   ; SHIFT TWO BITS FROM HL INTO DE PARTIAL DIFFERENCE
000307      XCHG
000307      CALL DPHLC   ; SHIFT HL LEFT
000307      XCHG

```

Program A(8) Square Root Subroutine.

000426	SCRT2:	MOV	A,B	; FINISHED, PUT ROOT IN A
000426	170			
000427		POP	H	; RETORE STATUS
000427	341			
000430		POP	D	
000430	321			
000431		POP	B	
000431	301			
000432		RET		; RETURN
000432	311			

Program A(8) (continued)

MULTIPLY BINARY ADDITION AND SUBTRACTION SUBROUTINES

ADDRESS	INSTRUCTION	OPERAND	COMMENT
000000	MAUD:		
000000	PUSH	PSW	; SUBROUTINE ... MULTIBYTE ADD
000000			; SAVE CPU STATUS
365	PUSH	B	
305	PUSH	D	
325	PUSH	H	
345	XRA	A	; CLEAR ACCUMULATOR AND CARRY BIT
257	LDAX	B	; LOAD BYTE OF FIRST NUMBER TO A
012	ADC	M	; ADD WITH CARRY BYTE OF SECOND NUMBER
216	STAX	B	; STORE SUM IN (0BCD)
002	DCR	E	; ADDITION FINISHED IF E=0
035	JZ	EXIT	; JUMP IF FINISHED
147	INX	B	; OTHERWISE POINT BC TO NEXT BYTE OF 1ST NUMBER
312	INX	H	; ALSO POINT HL TO NEXT BYTE OF 2ND NUMBER
003	JMP	MADDH5	; ADD NEXT TWO BYTES
043			
303			

0000021	PUSH	PCW		; START OF MULTIBYTE SUBTRACT ROUTINE
0000021				; SAVE CPU STATUS
0000021				
0000022	PUSH	B		
0000022				
0000023	PUSH	D		
0000023				
0000023	PUSH	H		
0000024				
0000024	XRA	A		; CLEAR ACCUMULATOR AND CARRY BIT
0000025				
0000025				

Program A(9) (continued)

000026	LDAX	D		; LOAD BYTE OF MINJEND TO A
000026			012	
000027	CBX	M		; SUBTRACT BYTE OF SUBTRAHEND FROM A
000027			236	
000030	STAX	B		; STORE DIFFERENCE IN I(BC)
000030			002	
000031	DCR	E		; ALL DONE IF E=0
000031			025	
000032	JZ	EXIT		; JUMP IF FINISHED
000032			147	
000035	INX	D		; OTHERWISE POINT (BC) TO NEXT BYTE
000035			003	
000036	INX	H		; AND POINT (HL) TO NEXT BYTE
000036			043	
000037	JMP	MSUB+5		; SUBTRACT NEXT TWO BYTES
000037			026	
			000	

```

MULTIBYTE COMPARE SUBROUTINE
;
; SUBROUTINE MCOMP COMPARES TWO MULTIBYTE UNSIGNED BINARY NUMBERS
; A AND B WHICH ARE STORED LOW-ORDER BYTE TO HIGH-ORDER BYTE
; BEGINNING AT C0C0 AND C0D0 RESPECTIVELY. REGISTER E
; SPECIFIES THE NUMBER OF BYTES IN EACH NUMBER. THE
; RESULT OF THE COMPARISON IS RETURNED IN REGISTER
; D. FOR A=B, D=2. FOR A<B, D=1. FOR A>B, D=0.
; TIMING HAS BEEN ADJUSTED SO THAT EXECUTION
; TIME DEPENDS ONLY ON THE NUMBER OF BYTES
; IN EACH NUMBER. EXECUTION TIME T IS:
; T = 110xE + 102 STATES WHERE E =
; NUMBER OF BYTES PER NUMBER
;
; START OF MULTIBYTE COMPARE ROUTINE
; SAVE MACHINE STATUS
MCOMP:      PUSH    PSW
            PUSH    B
            PUSH    D
            PUSH    H
            MVI    D,0          ; CLEAR FLAG BYTE
            LDAX   B            ; LOAD BYTE OF NUMBER A
            CMP    M            ; COMPARE TO BYTE OF NUMBER B
            JC     ALTM         ; JUMP IF BYTE A < BYTE B
            JNZ    ACTM        ; JUMP IF BYTE A > BYTE B
            MVI    A,0          ; BYTE A = BYTE B
            CMP    D            ; IF D=0 THIS MUST BE THE FIRST BYTE COMPARISON
            JNZ    ACTM+5       ; IF NOT EQUAL, DO NOT CHANGE FLAG BYTE E
            MVI    D,0         ; IF THIS IS THE FIRST BYTE COMPARISON AND
                                ; A=B, SET THE FLAG
            JMP     ACTM+8.
            000042
            000042
            000042
            000043
            000043
            000044
            000044
            000045
            000045
            000046
            000046
            000050
            000051
            000051
            000052
            000052
            000055
            000055
            000060
            000060
            000062
            000062
            000063
            000064
            000066
            000070
            000070
            365
            305
            325
            345
            000
            012
            276
            332
            302
            076
            272
            302
            026
            303
            110
            000
            073
            100
            000
            105
            003
            110
            000

```

Program A(10) Multibyte Compare Subroutine.

ADDRESS	INSTRUCTION	OPERANDS	COMMENT
000073	MVI	D, 1	; AND SO SET D=1
000074	JMP	ASTM+2	
000075			
000076	MVI	D, 2	; AND SO SET D=2
000077	MOV	A, M	; DELAY 7 STATES. NEXT THREE INSTRUCTIONS
000078	DLY10		; ALSO PROVIDE DELAY TO EQUALIZE EXECUTION TIMES
000079	MOV	A, M	; DELAY 7 MORE STATES
000080	DLY10		
000081	DCR	E	; COMPARISON COMPLETE IF E=0
000082	JZ	MC1	; JUMP IF THROUGH
000083	INX	H	; OTHERWISE POINT (HL) TO NEXT BYTE OF NUMBER A
000084	INX	B	; POINT (BC) TO NEXT BYTE OF NUMBER B
000085	JMP	MCMP+6	; COMPARE NEXT TWO BYTES
000086	POP	H	; RESTORE MACHINE STATE EXCEPT FOR
000087	MOV	B, D	; FLAG REGISTER E
000088	POP	D	
000089	MOV	D, B	
000090	POP	B	
000091	POP	PCW	
000092	RET		; RETURN TO CALLING POINT

Program A(70) (continued)

```

000130      ; SUBROUTINE MOVE DUPLICATES A BLOCK OF MEMORY BEGINNING AT <BC> ;
000131      ; IN A BLOCK OF MEMORY BEGINNING AT <ILD>. REGISTER E SPECIFIES ;
000132      ; THE NUMBER OF BYTES IN THE BLOCK. EXECUTION TIME 4-19 ;
000133      ; T = 499E + 91 STATES WHERE E = NUMBER OF BYTES IN BLOCK. ;
000134
000130      MOVE:      PUSH      PCW
000131      PUSH      B
000132      PUSH      D
000133      PUSH      H
000134      LDAX      B
000135      MOV       M,A
000136      DCR       E
000137      JZ        EXIT
000138      INX       B
000139      INX       H
000140      JMP       MOVE+4
000141
000130      ; STARTING POINT OF MOVE BLOCK ROUTINE
000131      ; SAVE CPU STATUS
000132
000133      ; LOAD BYTE OF DATA BLOCK
000134
000135      ; MOVE TO NEW MEMORY LOCATION
000136
000137      ; MOVE COMPLETE IF E=0
000138      ; RETURN IF THROUGH
000139
000140      ; OTHERWISE POINT (BC) TO NEXT BYTE
000141
000142      ; POINT (HL) TO NEXT BYTE OF NEW BLOCK
000143
000144      ; MOVE THE NEXT BYTE

```

000130			
000131			
000132			
000133			
000134			
000135			
000136			
000137			
000138			
000139			
000140			
000141			
000142			
000143			
000144			
000145			
000146			
000147			
000148			
000149			
000150			
000151			
000152			
000153			
000154			
000155			
000156			
000157			
000158			
000159			
000160			
000161			
000162			
000163			
000164			
000165			
000166			
000167			
000168			
000169			
000170			
000171			
000172			
000173			
000174			
000175			
000176			
000177			
000178			
000179			
000180			
000181			
000182			
000183			
000184			
000185			
000186			
000187			
000188			
000189			
000190			
000191			
000192			
000193			
000194			
000195			
000196			
000197			
000198			
000199			
000200			
000201			
000202			
000203			
000204			
000205			
000206			
000207			
000208			
000209			
000210			
000211			
000212			
000213			
000214			
000215			
000216			
000217			
000218			
000219			
000220			
000221			
000222			
000223			
000224			
000225			
000226			
000227			
000228			
000229			
000230			
000231			
000232			
000233			
000234			
000235			
000236			
000237			
000238			
000239			
000240			
000241			
000242			
000243			
000244			
000245			
000246			
000247			
000248			
000249			
000250			
000251			
000252			
000253			
000254			
000255			
000256			
000257			
000258			
000259			
000260			
000261			
000262			
000263			
000264			
000265			
000266			
000267			
000268			
000269			
000270			
000271			
000272			
000273			
000274			
000275			
000276			
000277			
000278			
000279			
000280			
000281			
000282			
000283			
000284			
000285			
000286			
000287			
000288			
000289			
000290			
000291			
000292			
000293			
000294			
000295			
000296			
000297			
000298			
000299			
000300			
000301			
000302			
000303			
000304			
000305			
000306			
000307			
000308			
000309			
000310			
000311			
000312			
000313			
000314			
000315			
000316			
000317			
000318			
000319			
000320			
000321			
000322			
000323			
000324			
000325			
000326			
000327			
000328			
000329			
000330			
000331			
000332			
000333			
000334			
000335			
000336			
000337			
000338			
000339			
000340			
000341			
000342			
000343			
000344			
000345			
000346			
000347			
000348			
000349			
000350			
000351			
000352			
000353			
000354			
000355			
000356			
000357			
000358			
000359			
000360			
000361			
000362			
000363			
000364			
000365			
000366			
000367			
000368			
000369			
000370			
000371			
000372			
000373			
000374			
000375			
000376			
000377			
000378			
000379			
000380			
000381			
000382			
000383			
000384			
000385			
000386			
000387			
000388			
000389			
000390			
000391			
000392			
000393			
000394			
000395			
000396			
000397			
000398			
000399			
000400			

Program A(11) Multibyte Memory-to-Memory Move Subroutine.

```

;
;
; GENERAL PURPOSE EXIT ROUTINE
;
; THIS ROUTINE POPS ALL CPU STATUS OFF THE STACK AND THUS IT
; RESTORES ALL MACHINE STATUS ASSUMING STATUS WAS ORIGINALLY
; PUSHED ONTO THE STACK. 60 MACHINE STATES INCLUDING THE JUMP
; INSTRUCTION USED TO ACCESS THIS ROUTINE ARE REQUIRED FOR ITS
; EXECUTION.
;
; EXIT:          ; GENERAL PURPOSE EXIT ROUTINE
;                ; RESTORED MACHINE STATUS
;
; POP           II
;
; POP           D
;
; POP           B
;
; POP           PSW
;
; RET           , RETURN
;
;
; END

```

Program A(12)	General Purpose	Exit Subroutine.

APPENDIX B

A NEW PRINCIPLE FOR FAST FOURIER TRANSFORMATION

APPENDIX B

A NEW PRINCIPLE FOR FAST FOURIER TRANSFORMATION

by

C. M. Rader, N. M. Brenner

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence of $N = 2^m$ data, whose Discrete Fourier Transform is $\{A_k\}$. Let $W = \exp(-j2\pi/N)$. Present FFT algorithms are derived from an equation like (1) or its dual*

$$A_k = \text{DFT}\{a_{2n}\} + W^k * \text{DFT}\{a_{2n+1}\} . \quad (1)$$

Each of the DFT's in (1) is a DFT of a half-length data sequence, and can be expressed as two still shorter DFT's. After m such stages of simplification an algorithm is evident which requires $5(N \log_2 N)$ operations to execute.

This note presents an alternative to Equation (1) which may similarly be applied iteratively to itself leading to an FFT algorithm. The new algorithm which so results has the peculiarity that none of the multiplying constants is complex. Its advantages would therefore seem to be most pronounced in systems for which multiplications are most costly.

*Equation (1) is too specialized, leading to radix-2 algorithms. It portrays the essence of the derivation, however.

Derivation

Let $\{b_n\}$ and $\{c_n\}$ be the sequences

$$\begin{aligned} b_n &= a_{2n} \\ c_n &= a_{2n+1} - a_{2n-1} + Q \end{aligned} \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, N/2 - 1 \quad (2)$$

where

$$Q = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} a_{2n+1}$$

The $\frac{N}{2}$ points DFT's of these sequences are $\{B_k\}$ and $\{C_k\}$. It is helpful to consider the sequence $\{d_n\}$ and its DFT, $\{D_k\}$ defined by

$$d_n = a_{2n+1} \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, N/2 - 1 \quad (3)$$

so that $\{B_k\}$ and $\{D_k\}$ are the DFT's in Equation (1).

C_k and D_k can be simply related. Since Q is a constant, it appears in C_k in only one term, C_0 . Furthermore, C_0 is exactly equal to D_0 . For other values of k , C_k can be expressed by the circular shifting theorem for DFT.

$$\begin{aligned} C_k &= D_k(1 - W^{2k}) \\ &= W^{-k} D_k(W^k - W^{-k}) \\ k &= 1, 2, \dots, \frac{N}{2} - 1 \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Hence,

$$W^k D_k = C_k / (W^k - W^{-k}) \quad k \neq 0 \quad (5)$$

and we can rewrite Equation (1)

$$A_k = B_k + C_k / (W^k - W^{-k})$$

$$k = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{N}{2} - 1, \frac{N}{2} + 1, \frac{N}{2} + 2, \dots, N - 1 \quad (6a)$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A_0 &= B_0 + C_0 \\ A_{N/2} &= B_{N/2} - C_{N/2} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (6b)$$

Since W^k and W^{-k} are complex conjugates, their difference is twice the imaginary part, e.g.,

$$W^k - W^{-k} = -2j \sin 2\pi k/N$$

so that (6a) may be written

$$A_k = B_k + \frac{1}{2}j \csc\left(\frac{2\pi}{N} k\right) C_k \quad k \neq 0, N/2 \quad (6a)$$

Equations (6a) and (6b) are the replacements for Equation (1) promised. A fast Fourier Transform algorithm based on (6a) and (6b) requires only multiplication by pure imaginary constants.

Comments

$\frac{N}{2}Q$ could have been added to the output terms $A_0, A_{N/2}$ rather than to each of $\frac{N}{2}$ input terms as in Equation (2) but this would have made the substitution of Equation (2) recursively into itself, to produce an FFT algorithm, a difficult matter. In hardware implementation, e.g., "pipelines" this may not be a consideration.

If, in Equation (2) we had used $a_{2n+1} - a_{2n-1}$, the minus sign would change to + in Equations (4), (5), and (6a), thus changing $\frac{1}{2}j \csc(2\pi k/N)$ to $\frac{1}{2} \sec(2\pi k/N)$. The exceptional cases for k would then be $k = N/4, 3N/4$ and these would involve $\pm j$, the only non-real operation encountered. We judge that the secant form offers no advantages over the cosecant form.

Whereas the constants W^k used in Equation (1) have unity magnitude, $\csc(2\pi k/N)$ can get very large. Therefore, small computation errors can lead to large output errors. Experience verifies that this is the case. We recommend that the method be modified if more than 8192 points are used. A conventional factoring can reduce a DFT to shorter DFT's and each of these can be computed by the cosecant method.

Substantial savings in multiplications can be made in the conventional FFT by deriving the algorithm in a higher radix. The method proposed here can also be developed for radices other than two. The $(p-1)$ -sequences to be formed are of the form $c_n^{(q)} = a_{pn+q} - a_{pn-q} + Q_q$. We have no idea whether computational savings can result from higher radix methods.

APPENDIX C

8080A FAST FOURIER TRANSFORM PROGRAM

Address	Op-Code	Instruction	Comments
000002	041	MVI M, LOG2N	
000005	044		
000005	044		
000007	041		
000007	041		
000012	045		
000012	045		
000013	012		
000013	012		
000016	172		
000016	172		
000017	207		
000017	207		
000020	107		
000020	107		
000021	172		
000021	172		
000022	306		
000022	306		
000024	107		
000024	107		
000025	170		
000025	170		
000026	306		
000026	306		
000030	223		
000030	223		
000031	074		
000031	074		
000032	117		
000032	117		
000033	041		
000033	041		
000036	175		
000036	175		
000037	201		
000037	201		
000040	157		
000040	157		
000041	322		
000041	322		
000044	044		
000044	044		
000045	042		
000045	042		
000050	176		
000050	176		
000051	043		
000051	043		
000052	156		
000052	156		
000053	147		
000053	147		
000054	042		
000054	042		
000057	042		
000057	042		
000062	046		
000062	046		
000064	000		
000064	000		
000064	154		
000064	154		

```

000065 CHILD SUM
000065 005 020 042
000065 CHILD SUM+2 (SUM) (SUM+2) <- 0
000070 042 022 005
000070 J=1
000073 MOV C,B
000073 110
000074 SUM=SUM+DATA(J)
000074 041 040 005
000074 CPXTEL DATA,C,B;ADDR,D;VAL (HL) <- (DATA(J))
000077 175
000100 201
000101 157
000102 222
000105 044
000106 042
000111 176
000112 043
000113 156
000114 147
000115 042
000120 005 034
000120 XCHG
000121 353
000121 PUSH H
000121 345
000122 305
000122 PUSH B
000122 305
000123 052
000123 LHL SUM
000123 112
000124 000
000124 MOV C,D
000127 006
000127 MVI B,0
000131 011
000131 DAD B
000132 042
000132 OVER: CHILD SUM
000135 052
000135 LHL SUM+2
000140 113
000140 MOV C,E
000141 011
000141 DAD B
000142 042
000142 OVER1: CHILD SUM+2
000145 301
000145 POP B
000146 341
000146 POP H
000147 353
000147 XCHG
000150 042
000150 TEMP=DATA(J)
000150 CHILD TEMP
000153 174
000153 TEMP=TEMP-PREV
000153 MOV A,H
000153 (H) CONTAINS REAL(TEMP)
000153 (HL) <- (DATA(J)), N1&N2 RESTORED
000153 (H) CONTAINS REAL(TEMP)

```

Program C(1) (continued)


```

000154 LXI H,PREV+1      005
000154 SUB M          017
000157 M A ← REAL(TEMP-PREV)
000157 226
000160 LXI H,TEMP+1  005
000160 MOV M,A
000163 167
000164 DCX H
000164 ;HL POINTS TO IMAG(TEMP)
000164 MOV A,M
000165 176
000166 LXI H,PREV
000166 SUB M
000171 226
000171 LXI H,TEMP
000172 041
000172 MOV M,A
000175 167
000175 ;PREV=DATA(J)
000176 LHL DJVAL
000176 052
000176 SHLD PREV      034
000201 042
000201 ;DATA(J)=TEMP
000201 LHL TEMP
000204 052
000204 PUSH D          024
000207 325
000207 XCHG
000210 353
000211 LHL DJADDR
000211 052
000211 MOV M,D        026
000214 162
000214 INX H
000215 043
000215 MOV M,E
000216 163
000217 POP D
000217 321
000220 ;J=J+NZ
000220 MOV A,C
000220 171
000220 ADD E
000221 203
000221 MOV C,A
000222 117
000222 ;IF (J-NZ-1, LE, 0) GO TO 20
000222 DCR A
000222 075
000223 CPI NZ
000224 376
000224 JM $20          037
000226 372
000226 JZ $20          074
000231 000

```

Program C(1) (continued)

```

000231 000 074 312 125 SUM=SUM/2**K
000234 005 305 305 325: PUSH E
000235 325 325 325 325: PUSH D
000236 005 020 005 005: LHL D SUM
000237 005 020 005 005: XCHG
000238 005 020 005 005: LHL D SUM+2
000239 005 020 005 005: MOV B,H
000240 005 020 005 005: MOV C,L
000241 005 020 005 005: LXI H,K
000242 005 020 005 005: MOV H,M
000243 005 020 005 005: LOOP25: DCR H
000244 005 020 005 005: JH OTLOOP
000245 005 020 005 005: MOV A,B
000246 005 020 005 005: ANA A
000247 005 020 005 005: RRC
000248 005 020 005 005: MOV B,A
000249 005 020 005 005: MOV A,C
000250 005 020 005 005: RAR
000251 005 020 005 005: MOV C,A
000252 005 020 005 005: MOV A,D
000253 005 020 005 005: ANA A
000254 005 020 005 005: RRC
000255 005 020 005 005: MOV D,A
000256 005 020 005 005: MOV A,E
000257 005 020 005 005: RAR
000258 005 020 005 005: MOV E,A
000259 005 020 005 005: JMP LOOP25
000260 005 020 005 005: OTLOOP: XCHG
000261 005 020 005 005: SHLD SUM
000262 005 020 005 005:
000263 005 020 005 005:
000264 005 020 005 005:
000265 005 020 005 005:
000266 005 020 005 005:
000267 005 020 005 005:
000268 005 020 005 005:
000269 005 020 005 005:
000270 005 020 005 005:
000271 005 020 005 005:
000272 005 020 005 005:
000273 005 020 005 005:
000274 005 020 005 005:
000275 005 020 005 005:
000276 005 020 005 005:
000277 005 020 005 005:
000278 005 020 005 005:
000279 005 020 005 005:
000280 005 020 005 005:
000281 005 020 005 005:
000282 005 020 005 005:
000283 005 020 005 005:
000284 005 020 005 005:
000285 005 020 005 005:
000286 005 020 005 005:
000287 005 020 005 005:
000288 005 020 005 005:
000289 005 020 005 005:
000290 005 020 005 005:
000291 005 020 005 005:
000292 005 020 005 005:
000293 005 020 005 005:
000294 005 020 005 005:
000295 005 020 005 005:
000296 005 020 005 005:
000297 005 020 005 005:
000298 005 020 005 005:
000299 005 020 005 005:
000300 005 020 005 005:
000301 005 020 005 005:

```

Program C(1) (continued)

```

000301      042      005      MOV      H, D
000304      140      MOV      L, C
000305      151      SHLD     SUM+2
000306      042      005      POP      D
000311      321      POP      B
000312      301      ; J=1
000313      110      MOV      C, B
000314      325      ; 30 DATA(J)=DATA(J)+SUM
000315      041      005      PUSH     D
000316      020      LXI      H, SUM
000317      176      MOV      A, M
000318      365      PUSH     PSW
000319      040      ; AFTER DIVISION BY 2**K, SUM IS NOW A TWO BYTE COMPLEX VALUE.
000320      000      CPXHL    DATA, C, DJADDR, DJVAL ; HL <- (DATA(J))
000321      041      005      POP      PSW
000322      040      ; RESTORE A
000323      175      ADD      H
000324      201      MOV      D, A
000325      157      MOV      A, L
000326      322      LXI      H, SUM+2
000327      044      ADD      M
000328      042      005      LHH     DJADDR
000329      176      MOV      M, D
000330      043      INX      H
000331      156      MOV      M, A
000332      147      ; HL <- DATA+(J)
000333      042      005      POP      PSW
000334      361      ADD      H
000335      204      MOV      D, A
000336      127      MOV      A, L
000337      175      LXI      H, SUM+2
000338      041      005      ADD      M
000339      206      LHH     DJADDR
000340      052      005      MOV      M, D
000341      162      INX      H
000342      043      MOV      M, A
000343      167

```

Program C(1) (continued)


```

000424 362 125 001 142 TEMP=DATA(I)
000427 041 040 005 348 CPXTBL DATA, E, DIADDR, DIVAL ; HL <- (DATA(I))
000432 175
000433 200
000434 157
000435 222 041 001
000440 044 030 005
000441 042
000444 176
000445 043
000446 156
000447 147
000450 042 036 005
000453 042 024 005
000456 041 040 005
000461 175
000462 201
000463 157
000464 222 070 001
000467 044
000470 042 026 005
000473 176
000474 043
000475 156
000476 147
000477 042 034 005
000502
000502 325
000503
000503 353
000504 052 030 005
000507
000507 162
000510
000510 043
000511
000511 163
000512
000512 052 024 005
000515
000515 353
000516
000516 052 026 005
000521
000521 162
000522
000522 043
000523
000523 163
000524

; DATA(I)=DATA(J)
CPXTBL DATA, C, DJADDR, DJVAL ; HL <- (DATA(J))

PUSH D
XCHG
LHLD DIADDR
MOV M, D
INX H
MOV M, E
; DATA(J)=TEMP
LHLD TEMP
XCHG
LHLD DJADDR
MOV M, D
INX H
MOV M, E
POP D

```

Program C(1) (continued)

```

000524 321      150 N1=(N0+1)/2
000525      350:   MVI   A,N0+1
000526      040      ; A ← N0+1
000527      076      ANA   A
000528      247      ; RESET CARRY
000529      037      RAR
000530      127      ; A ← A/2
000531      171      MOV   D,A
000532      272      164      001
000533      372      155      001
000534      027      156      001
000535      074      003      001
000536      127      362      132      001
000537      376      171
000538      202
000539      117
000540      000541
000541      172
000542      247
000543      037
000544      037
000545      322
000546      027
000547      074
000548      303
000549      027
000550      127
000551      376
000552      362
000553      171
000554      202
000555      117
000556      000557
000557      376
000558      362
000559      171
000560      202
000561      117
000562      000563
000564      000565
000566      000567
000567      000568
000569      000570
000571      000572
000573      000574
000575      000576
000577      000578
000579      000580
000581      000582
000583      000584
000585      000586
000587      000588
000589      000590
000591      000592
000593      000594
000595      000596
000597      000598
000599      000600
000601      000602
000603      000604
000605      000606
000607      000608
000609      000610
000611      000612
000613      000614
000615      000616
000617      000618
000619      000620
000621      000622
000623      000624
000625      000626
000627      000628
000629      000630
000631      000632
000633      000634
000635      000636
000637      000638
000639      000640
000641      000642
000643      000644
000645      000646
000647      000648
000649      000650
000651      000652
000653      000654
000655      000656
000657      000658
000659      000660
000661      000662
000663      000664
000665      000666
000667      000668
000669      000670
000671      000672
000673      000674
000675      000676
000677      000678
000679      000680
000681      000682
000683      000684
000685      000686
000687      000688
000689      000690
000691      000692
000693      000694
000695      000696
000697      000698
000699      000700
000701      000702
000703      000704
000705      000706
000707      000708
000709      000710
000711      000712
000713      000714
000715      000716
000717      000718
000719      000720
000721      000722
000723      000724
000725      000726
000727      000728
000729      000730
000731      000732
000733      000734
000735      000736
000737      000738
000739      000740
000741      000742
000743      000744
000745      000746
000747      000748
000749      000750
000751      000752
000753      000754
000755      000756
000757      000758
000759      000760
000761      000762
000763      000764
000765      000766
000767      000768
000769      000770
000771      000772
000773      000774
000775      000776
000777      000778
000779      000780
000781      000782
000783      000784
000785      000786
000787      000788
000789      000790
000791      000792
000793      000794
000795      000796
000797      000798
000799      000800
000801      000802
000803      000804
000805      000806
000807      000808
000809      000810
000811      000812
000813      000814
000815      000816
000817      000818
000819      000820
000821      000822
000823      000824
000825      000826
000827      000828
000829      000830
000831      000832
000833      000834
000835      000836
000837      000838
000839      000840
000841      000842
000843      000844
000845      000846
000847      000848
000849      000850
000851      000852
000853      000854
000855      000856
000857      000858
000859      000860
000861      000862
000863      000864
000865      000866
000867      000868
000869      000870
000871      000872
000873      000874
000875      000876
000877      000878
000879      000880
000881      000882
000883      000884
000885      000886
000887      000888
000889      000890
000891      000892
000893      000894
000895      000896
000897      000898
000899      000900
000901      000902
000903      000904
000905      000906
000907      000908
000909      000910
000911      000912
000913      000914
000915      000916
000917      000918
000919      000920
000921      000922
000923      000924
000925      000926
000927      000928
000929      000930
000931      000932
000933      000934
000935      000936
000937      000938
000939      000940
000941      000942
000943      000944
000945      000946
000947      000948
000949      000950
000951      000952
000953      000954
000955      000956
000957      000958
000959      000960
000961      000962
000963      000964
000965      000966
000967      000968
000969      000970
000971      000972
000973      000974
000975      000976
000977      000978
000979      000980
000981      000982
000983      000984
000985      000986
000987      000988
000989      000990
000991      000992
000993      000994
000995      000996
000997      000998
000999      001000

```

Program C(1) (continued)

000567	004	INR	B	
000570	004	IF (I-N3-1, LT. 0) GO TO 45		
000571		MOV	A, B	
000572	170	DCR	A	
000573	075	CPI	N3	
000574	376	JM	545	
000575	372			001

2 POINT FOURIER TRANSFORMS & PHASE SHIFTS

REGISTER B HOLDS THE VARIABLE I
 REGISTER C HOLDS THE VARIABLE J
 REGISTER D HOLDS THE VARIABLE N1
 REGISTER E HOLDS THE VARIABLE N2
 REGISTER H HOLDS THE VARIABLE M1
 REGISTER L HOLDS THE VARIABLE NO

000600		190	K=0	
000601		390:	LX1	H, K
000602	041	351	MV1	M, O
000603	066	000		

M2=1

M2 FOLLOWS K IN MEMORY

000605	043		MV1	M, 2
000606	066	002		

2 BYTES/ COMPLEX VALUE

M1=0

000610	046	000	MV1	H, O
--------	-----	-----	-----	------

100 IF (M2-N3-1, GT. 0) GO TO 150

100: PUSH H

000612	345		LX1	M, M2
000613	041	352	MOV	A, M
000614	176		DCR	A
000617	075		DCR	A
000620	075		CPI	N3
000621	376	037	POP	H
000622	341		JP	MATUDE
000624	362	142		

IF (M1, EQ. 0) GO TO 110

MOV A, H

ANA A

JZ 5110

FFT FINISHED. FIND MAGNITUDES.

Program C(1) (continued)


```

000676 LXI H,13
000677 MOV B,M
000678 MOV H
000679 J=1+H1
000680 MOV A,B
000681 ADD D
000682 MOV C,A
000683 TEMP=DATA(J)
000684 PUSH H
000685 ;SAVE REGISTERS
000686 CFXTEL DATA,C,DJADDR,DJVAL ;HL ← DATA(J)
000687 SHLD TEMP
000688 POP H
000689 ;RESTORE REGISTERS
000690 IF (M1.EQ.0) GO TO 135
000691 MOV A,H
000692 ANA A
000693 PUSH H
000694 PUSH D
000695 JZ S135
000696 ;132 TEMP=(0.1)*TEMP*TABLE(K)
000697 S132: PUSH B
000698 LHL TEMP
000699 SUB A
000700 SUB L
000701 MOV D,A
000702 MOV E,H
000703 ;HL ← TEMP
000704 ;A ← 0
000705 ;A ← -IMAG(TEMP)
000706 ;DE ← TEMP*(0.1)
000707
000708
000709
000710
000711
000712
000713
000714
000715
000716
000717
000718
000719
000720
000721
000722
000723
000724
000725
000726
000727
000728
000729
000730
000731
000732
000733
000734
000735
000736
000737
000738
000739
000740
000741
000742
000743
000744
000745
000746
000747
000748
000749
000750
000751
000752
000753
000754
000755
000756

```

Program C(1) (continued)

Address	Op Code	Op	Op 2	Op 3	Op 4	Op 5	Op 6	Op 7	Op 8	Op 9	Op 10	Op 11	Op 12	Op 13	Op 14	Op 15	Op 16	Op 17	Op 18	Op 19	Op 20	Op 21	Op 22	Op 23	Op 24	Op 25	Op 26	Op 27	Op 28	Op 29	Op 30	Op 31	Op 32	Op 33	Op 34	Op 35	Op 36	Op 37	Op 38	Op 39	Op 40	Op 41	Op 42	Op 43	Op 44	Op 45	Op 46	Op 47	Op 48	Op 49	Op 50	Op 51	Op 52	Op 53	Op 54	Op 55	Op 56	Op 57	Op 58	Op 59	Op 60	Op 61	Op 62	Op 63	Op 64	Op 65	Op 66	Op 67	Op 68	Op 69	Op 70	Op 71	Op 72	Op 73	Op 74	Op 75	Op 76	Op 77	Op 78	Op 79	Op 80	Op 81	Op 82	Op 83	Op 84	Op 85	Op 86	Op 87	Op 88	Op 89	Op 90	Op 91	Op 92	Op 93	Op 94	Op 95	Op 96	Op 97	Op 98	Op 99	Op 100	Op 101	Op 102	Op 103	Op 104	Op 105	Op 106	Op 107	Op 108	Op 109	Op 110	Op 111	Op 112	Op 113	Op 114	Op 115	Op 116	Op 117	Op 118	Op 119	Op 120	Op 121	Op 122	Op 123	Op 124	Op 125	Op 126	Op 127	Op 128	Op 129	Op 130	Op 131	Op 132	Op 133	Op 134	Op 135	Op 136	Op 137	Op 138	Op 139	Op 140	Op 141	Op 142	Op 143	Op 144	Op 145	Op 146	Op 147	Op 148	Op 149	Op 150	Op 151	Op 152	Op 153	Op 154	Op 155	Op 156	Op 157	Op 158	Op 159	Op 160	Op 161	Op 162	Op 163	Op 164	Op 165	Op 166	Op 167	Op 168	Op 169	Op 170	Op 171	Op 172	Op 173	Op 174	Op 175	Op 176	Op 177	Op 178	Op 179	Op 180	Op 181	Op 182	Op 183	Op 184	Op 185	Op 186	Op 187	Op 188	Op 189	Op 190	Op 191	Op 192	Op 193	Op 194	Op 195	Op 196	Op 197	Op 198	Op 199	Op 200	Op 201	Op 202	Op 203	Op 204	Op 205	Op 206	Op 207	Op 208	Op 209	Op 210	Op 211	Op 212	Op 213	Op 214	Op 215	Op 216	Op 217	Op 218	Op 219	Op 220	Op 221	Op 222	Op 223	Op 224	Op 225	Op 226	Op 227	Op 228	Op 229	Op 230	Op 231	Op 232	Op 233	Op 234	Op 235	Op 236	Op 237	Op 238	Op 239	Op 240	Op 241	Op 242	Op 243	Op 244	Op 245	Op 246	Op 247	Op 248	Op 249	Op 250	Op 251	Op 252	Op 253	Op 254	Op 255	Op 256	Op 257	Op 258	Op 259	Op 260	Op 261	Op 262	Op 263	Op 264	Op 265	Op 266	Op 267	Op 268	Op 269	Op 270	Op 271	Op 272	Op 273	Op 274	Op 275	Op 276	Op 277	Op 278	Op 279	Op 280	Op 281	Op 282	Op 283	Op 284	Op 285	Op 286	Op 287	Op 288	Op 289	Op 290	Op 291	Op 292	Op 293	Op 294	Op 295	Op 296	Op 297	Op 298	Op 299	Op 300	Op 301	Op 302	Op 303	Op 304	Op 305	Op 306	Op 307	Op 308	Op 309	Op 310	Op 311	Op 312	Op 313	Op 314	Op 315	Op 316	Op 317	Op 318	Op 319	Op 320	Op 321	Op 322	Op 323	Op 324	Op 325	Op 326	Op 327	Op 328	Op 329	Op 330	Op 331	Op 332	Op 333	Op 334	Op 335	Op 336	Op 337	Op 338	Op 339	Op 340	Op 341	Op 342	Op 343	Op 344	Op 345	Op 346	Op 347	Op 348	Op 349	Op 350	Op 351	Op 352	Op 353	Op 354	Op 355	Op 356	Op 357	Op 358	Op 359	Op 360	Op 361	Op 362	Op 363	Op 364	Op 365	Op 366	Op 367	Op 368	Op 369	Op 370	Op 371	Op 372	Op 373	Op 374	Op 375	Op 376	Op 377	Op 378	Op 379	Op 380
---------	---------	----	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------

Program C(1) (continued)

001040	MOV	A, E		
001041	ADD	L		
001042	MOV	L, A		
001043	XCHG			
001044	LJMP	DIADDR		
001045	MOV	M, D		
001046	INX	H		
001047	MOV	M, E		
001048	POP	D		
001049	POP	H		
001050				RESTORE REGISTERS
001051	IF(M1.NE.0) GO TO 140			
001052	MOV	A, H		A ← (M1)
001053	ANA	A		SET FLAG
001054	JNZ	\$140		
001055				
001056				
001057				
001058				
001059				
001060				
001061				
001062				
001063				
001064				
001065				
001066				
001067				
001068				
001069				
001070				
001071				
001072				
001073				
001074				
001075				
001076				
001077				
001078				
001079				
001080				
001081				
001082				
001083				
001084				
001085				
001086				
001087				
001088				
001089				
001090				
001091				
001092				
001093				
001094				
001095				
001096				
001097				
001098				
001099				
001100				
001101				

Program C(1) (continued)

001102			MOV	D, A	
001102	127				
001103					
001103	303	255	001		
001104					
001104	174				
001107					
001107	306	004			
001111					
001111	147				
001112					
001112	207				
001113					
001113	075				
001114					
001114	345				
001115					
001115	041	352	004		
001120					
001120	276				
001121					
001121	341				
001122					
001122	372	234	001		
001125					
001125	046	002			
001127					
001127	345				
001130					
001130	041	352	004		
001133					
001133	176				
001134					
001134	207				
001135					
001135	167				
001136					
001136	341				
001137					
001137	303	212	001		
001142					
001142	345				
001143					
001143	041	353	004		
001146					
001146	176				
001147					
001147	341				
001150					

; 140 M1=M1+2
 ; 140: MOV A, H
 ADI 4
 MOV H, A
 ; IF (2*M1-M2, LE, 0) GO TO 105
 ADD A
 DCR A
 PUSH H
 LXI H, M2
 CMP M
 POP H
 JM S105
 ; 142 M1=1
 ; 142: MVI H, 2
 ; 145 M2=2*M2
 ; 145: PUSH H
 LXI H, M2
 MOV A, M
 ADD A
 MOV M, A
 POP H
 ; GO TO 100
 JMP S100
 ; 160 I=N1+2*(1+I3+NO)-1
 ; 160: PUSH H
 LXI H, I3
 MOV A, M
 POP H
 INR A
 ; A <= 2*M2
 ; A <= 13
 ; A <= 13
 ; A <= 13

Program C(1) (continued)

```

001150 074 INR A ; A ← 13+1
001151 074 SUB L ; A ← 13+1-NO
001152 225 ADD A ; A ← 2*(13+1-NO)
001153 207 ADD D ; A ← N1+2*(13+1-NO)
001154 202 SUB B ; A ← N1+2*(---)-1
001155 220 MOV B,A
001156 107 ; IF(1-13.GT.0) GO TO 130
; PUSH H
; LXI H,13
; CMP M ; A=1, (M)=13
; POP H
; JZ S165
; JP S130
;165 13=13+N2
;S165: PUSH H
; LXI H,13
; MOV A,M ; A ← 13
; ADD E ; A ← 13+N2
; MOV M,A
; POP H
; IF(13-N3-1.LE.0) GO TO 125
; DCR A
; DCR A
; CPI N3
; JM S125
; GO TO 130
; JMP S130
;SUBROUTINE MULCON(TEMP,K)
; MULCON IS A SPECIAL ROUTINE FOR MULTIPLYING A NUMBER IN
; 'TEMP' BY A CONSTANT. THIS IS ACCOMPLISHED BY A SHIFTING PROCESS
; AND SUCCESSIVE ADDITION. FOR EXAMPLE, SUPPOSE CONSTANT=0.81.
; SHIFTING 'TEMP' RIGHT TWO TIMES YIELDS 0.25'TEMP'. IF THIS SHIFTED
; VALUE IS THEN SUBTRACTED FROM THE ORIGINAL VALUE, 0.75'TEMP'.

```

Program C(1) (continued)

```

; RESULTS: NOW IF 'TEMP' IS SHIFTED RIGHT FOUR TIMES, THE
; RESULT IS 0.04*TEMP. ADDING THIS TO 0.75*TEMP WILL YIELD 0.81*TEMP.
; THE NUMBER OF SHIFTS REQUIRED FOR EACH CONSTANT IS STORED IN
; THE ARRAY 'TABLE'. THE SIGN OF A VALUE IN 'TABLE' INDICATES
; WHETHER THE SHIFTED VALUE IS TO BE ADDED TO OR SUBTRACTED FROM
; THE SUB-TOTAL.
;
MULCON: LXI H,K
; TMPROD=TEMP
001215 041 351 004
001216 041 351 004
001217 041 351 004
001218 041 351 004
001219 041 351 004
001220 041 351 004
001221 041 351 004
001222 041 351 004
001223 041 351 004
001224 041 351 004
001225 041 351 004
001226 041 351 004
001227 041 351 004
001228 041 351 004
001229 041 351 004
001230 041 351 004
001231 041 351 004
001232 041 351 004
001233 041 351 004
001234 041 351 004
001235 041 351 004
001236 041 351 004
001237 041 351 004
001238 041 351 004
001239 041 351 004
001240 041 351 004
001241 041 351 004
001242 041 351 004
001243 041 351 004
001244 041 351 004
001245 041 351 004
001246 041 351 004
001247 041 351 004
001248 041 351 004
001249 041 351 004
001250 041 351 004
001251 041 351 004
001252 041 351 004
001253 041 351 004
001254 041 351 004
001255 041 351 004
001256 041 351 004
001257 041 351 004
001258 041 351 004
001259 041 351 004
001260 041 351 004
001261 041 351 004
001262 041 351 004
001263 041 351 004
001264 041 351 004
; IF(K<9, EQ, 0) GO TO 210
; LXI H,K
; MOV A,M
; CPI 22
; JZ S210
; IF(K<5, NE, 0) GO TO 220
; CPI 12
; JNZ S220
; TMPROD=2*TEMP
; MOV A,D
; ADD A
; MOV B,A
; MOV A,E
; ADD A
; MOV C,A
; GO TO 220
; JMP S220
; 210 TMPROD=5*TEMP
; 210: MOV A,D
; ADD A
; Program C(1) (continued)

```

```

001264 207 ADD A ; A ← 4*REAL(TEMP)
001265 207 ADD D ; A ← A+REAL(TEMP)
001266 202 MOV B,A
001267 107 MOV A,E
001270 173 ADD A
001271 207 ADD A
001272 207 ADD D ; A ← 5*IMAG(TEMP)
001273 202 MOV C,A
001274 117 ; H=NTERMS
001275 046 ; 1ST LOOP=REAL, 2ND=IMAG
001275 003 ; H=NTERMS
001277 045 ; IF (NTERMS.EQ.0) GO TO 250
001277 003 JZ 0250
001300 312 ; TKVAL=TABLE(K)
001300 003 PUSH H
001303 345 LHD TKADDR
001304 052 MOV A,M ; A ← TABLE(K)
001307 176 POP H
001310 341 ; IF (TKVAL.LT.0) GO TO 230
001311 157 MOV L,A ; L ← TABLE(K), L=TKVAL
001312 247 ANA A
001313 372 JM 0230
001316 312 ; IF (TKVAL.EQ.0) GO TO 250
001316 003 JZ 0250
001321 345 ; TMPROD=TMPROD+TEMP/2**TKVAL
001321 003 PUSH H
001322 145 MOV H,L ; PUT TKVAL IN H AND L
001323 172 MOV A,D ; A ← REAL(TEMP)
001324 045 DCR H ; H IS REAL LOOP COUNTER
001325 372 JM CTNDA ; EXIT AFTER TKVAL LOOPS
001325 002 CPI -1 ; TEST FOR A=-1
001330

```

Program C(1) (continued)

```

; IF A=-1, SET A TO 0 AND LEAVE LOOP
; TEST SIGN
; A ← A/2
; A ← REAL[IMPROD+TEMP/2]*TKVAL]
; A ← IMAG(TEMP)
; A ← IMAG[IMPROD+TEMP/2]*TKVAL]

```

Program C(1) (continued)

001330	376	377	JNZ	LM1A	
001332	302	002	MVI	A, 0	
001335	076	000	JMP	CTNUA	
001337	303	353	ANA	A	
001342	247		JF	LM1	
001343	362	002	STC		
001346	067		RAR		
001347	037		JMP	LOOPD	
001350	303	002	ADD	B	
001353	200		MOV	B, A	
001354	107		MOV	A, E	
001355	173		DCR	L	
001356	055		JM	CTNUB	
001357	372	003	CP1	-1	
001362	376	377	JNZ	LM2A	
001364	302	002	MVI	A, 0	
001367	076	000	JMP	CTNUB	
001371	303	003	ANA	A	
001374	247		JF	LM2	
001375	362	001	STC		
001400	067		RAR		
001401	037		JMP	LOOPE	
001402	303	002	ADD	C	
001405	201		MOV	C, A	
001406	117				
001407	052	032	LHLD	TKADDR	
001407	052	005	INX	H	
001412	043		SHLD	TKADDR	
001413	042	032	POP	H	
001413					
001416					


```

001416 341      100 TO 225
001417      JMP      0225
001417 303      1230 TIKVAL=COMPLEMENT(TIKVAL)
001422 175      0230: MOV      A,L
001423      CMA
001423 057      MOV      L,A
001424 157      ;TMPROD=TMPROD*TEMP/2**TIKVAL
001425      PUSH     H
001425      ;PUT TIKVAL IN H AND L
001426      MOV      H,L
001426 145      MOV      A,D
001427 172      LOOPDD: DCR      H
001430 045      JM       CTNUAA
001431 372      CP1      -1
001434 376      JNZ      LM11A
001436 302      MVI      A,0
001441 076      JMP      CTNUAA
001443 303      ANA      A
001446 247      JP       LM11
001447 362      STC
001452 067      RAR
001453 037      JMP      LOOPDD
001454 303      CTNUAA: SUB      B
001457 220      MOV      B,A
001460 107      MOV      A,E
001461 173      DCR      L
001462 055      JM       CTNUBB
001463 372      CP1      -1
001466 376      JNZ      LM22A
001470 302      MVI      A,0
001473 076      JMP      CTNUBB
001475

```

Program C(1) (continued)

```

001475 000 111 000 LM22A: ANA A
001500 247 000 JF LM22
001501 362 105 000 STC
001504 067 000 RAR
001505 007 000 JMP LOOPEE
001506 000 062 000 CTNUB: SUB C
001511 221 000 MOV C,A
001512 117 000 SUB A
001513 227 000 SUB B
001514 220 000 MOV B,A
001515 107 000 SUB A
001516 227 000 SUB C
001517 221 000 MOV C,A
001520 117 000
001521 052 032 005 JTKADDR=TKADDR+1
001521 052 032 005 LHL TKADDR
001524 043 000 INX H
001524 042 000 SHL TKADDR
001525 042 000 POP H
001530 341 000
001531 303 277 002 JGO TO 225
001531 303 277 002 JMP $225
001534 140 000 J250 TEMP=TMPROD
001534 140 000 $250: MOV H,B
001535 151 000 MOV L,C
001536 042 024 005 SHLD TEMP
001536 042 024 005 JRETURN
001541 311 000 RET
001541 311 000
001542 000 000 MATUDE: MVI B,2
001542 000 000 JPOINTS TO DATA(1)

```

; FEATURE EXTRACTOR
 ; STORE N IN A, WHERE DATA(N/2) IS THE COMPLEX TRANSFORM
 ; VALUE WHOSE MAGNITUDE IS TO BE FOUND. STORE THE MAGNITUDE
 ; SPECIFIED BY N IN THE ARRAY MTUDE. HERE, ONLY THE FIRST FOUR
 ; MAGNITUDES WILL BE FOUND.
 ;

Program C(1) (continued)

```

00000000 002
001544 041 004
001544 041 004
001547 042 004
001547 042 004
001552 015 003
001552 042 004
001555 041 004
001557 041 004
001557 041 004
001562 042 004
001562 042 004
001565 015 003
001565 042 004
001570 006 006
001570 041 004
001572 041 004
001572 041 004
001575 042 004
001575 042 004
001600 015 003
001600 041 004
001603 006 010
001603 041 004
001605 041 004
001610 042 004
001610 042 004
001613 015 003
001613 041 004
001616 006 012
001616 041 004
001620 041 004
001620 042 004
001623 042 004
001626 015 003
001626 041 004
001631 011
001631 011

```

LXI H, MTUDE ; MTUDE HOLDS MAGNITUDES
 SHLD MAGS
 CALL MAGNTD ; FIND MAGNITUDE OF DATA(1)
 MVI B, 4 ; POINTS TO DATA(2)
 LXI H, MTUDE+1
 SHLD MAGS
 CALL MAGNTD ; FIND MAGNITUDE OF DATA(2)
 MVI B, 6 ; POINTS TO DATA(3)
 LXI H, MTUDE+2
 SHLD MAGS
 CALL MAGNTD ; FIND MAGNITUDE OF DATA(3)
 MVI B, 8
 LXI H, MTUDE+3
 SHLD MAGS
 CALL MAGNTD
 MVI B, 10
 LXI H, MTUDE+4
 SHLD MAGS
 CALL MAGNTD
 RET ; RETURN TO EXECUTIVE

MAGNITUDE OF FFT COMPONENT. REGISTER A HOLDS N, SUCH THAT
 DATA(N/2) IS THE COMPLEX VALUE WHOSE MAGNITUDE IS TO
 BE STORED IN ADDRESS IN 'MAGS'.

MAKE BOTH VALUES POSITIVE
 MAGNTD: CPXIBL DATA, D, DIADDR, DUVAL ; HL C- (DATA(N))

```

001632 041 040 005
001632 041 004
001635 175
001636 200
001637 157
001640 022 003
001643 044
001644 042 005
001647 176
001650 043

```

Program C(1) (continued)

```

001651 156 004 005      MOV     A,H      ; A ← REAL(DATA(N))
001652 147      ANA     A          ; AFFECT SIGN BIT
001653 042 174 247      JP      S300
001654 362      CMA
001655 057      INR     A          ; A ← A
001656 074      MOV     C,A      ; C ← ABS(REAL(DATA(N)))
001657 117      MOV     A,L      ; A ← IMAG(DATA(N))
001658 175      ANA     A          ; TEST SIGN BIT
001659 247      JP      S310
001660 362      CMA
001661 057      INR     A          ; A ← A
001662 074      MOV     L,A      ; L ← ABS(IMAG(DATA(N)))
001663 157      ; TEST FOR BOTH VALUES = 0.
001664      ANA     A          ; IS ABS(IMAG)=0?
001665      JNZ     S315
001666      CMP     C          ; ABS(IMAG)=0, IS ABS(REAL)=0?
001667      JNZ     S315
001668      MVI     H,0
001669      MOV     L,H      ; BOTH VALUES 0
001670      JMP     S455      ; HL ← 0
001671 303      ; FIND LARGER VALUE. MOVE LARGER INTO HL, SMALLER INTO C.
001672      S315:      CMP     C
001673      JP      S320      ; DO NOT SWITCH IF > OR =.
001674 362      MOV     L,C
001675 151      MOV     C,A      ; A STILL CONTAINS ABS(IMAG)
001676 117      MVI     H,0      ; HL ← LARGER VALUE
001677 046      ; MULTIPLY LARGER VALUE BY 8 (SHIFT LEFT 3 TIMES)
001678      SHLD    LARGER    ; SAVE LARGER VALUE
001679 042 327 004      DAD     H
001680 00727

```

Program C(1) (continued)

001727	DAD	H			
001730	DAD	H			
001731	XCHG				
001732					
001733					
001734					
001735					
001736					
001737					
001738					
001739					
001740					
001741					
001742					
001743					
001744					
001745					
001746					
001747					
001748					
001749					
001750					
001751					
001752					
001753					
001754					
001755					
001756					
001757					
001758					
001759					
001760					
001761					
001762					
001763					
001764					
001765					
001766					
001767					
001768					
001769					
001770					
001771					
001772					
001773					
001774					
001775					
001776					
001777					
001778					
001779					
001780					
001781					
001782					
001783					
001784					
001785					
001786					
001787					
001788					
001789					
001790					
001791					
001792					
001793					
001794					
001795					
001796					
001797					
001798					
001799					
001800					
001801					
001802					
001803					
001804					
001805					
001806					
001807					
001808					
001809					
001810					
001811					
001812					
001813					
001814					
001815					
001816					
001817					
001818					
001819					
001820					
001821					
001822					
001823					
001824					
001825					
001826					
001827					
001828					
001829					
001830					
001831					
001832					
001833					
001834					
001835					
001836					
001837					
001838					
001839					
001840					
001841					
001842					
001843					
001844					
001845					
001846					
001847					
001848					
001849					
001850					
001851					
001852					
001853					
001854					
001855					
001856					
001857					
001858					
001859					
001860					
001861					
001862					
001863					
001864					
001865					
001866					
001867					
001868					
001869					
001870					
001871					
001872					
001873					
001874					
001875					
001876					
001877					
001878					
001879					
001880					
001881					
001882					
001883					
001884					
001885					
001886					
001887					
001888					
001889					
001890					
001891					
001892					
001893					
001894					
001895					
001896					
001897					
001898					
001899					
001900					
001901					
001902					
001903					
001904					
001905					
001906					
001907					
001908					
001909					
001910					
001911					
001912					
001913					
001914					
001915					
001916					
001917					
001918					
001919					
001920					
001921					
001922					
001923					
001924					
001925					
001926					
001927					
001928					
001929					
001930					
001931					
001932					
001933					
001934					
001935					
001936					
001937					
001938					
001939					
001940					
001941					
001942					
001943					
001944					
001945					
001946					
001947					
001948					
001949					
001950					
001951					
001952					
001953					
001954					
001955					
001956					
001957					
001958					
001959					
001960					
001961					
001962					
001963					
001964					
001965					
001966					
001967					
001968					
001969					
001970					
001971					
001972					
001973					
001974					
001975					
001976					
001977					
001978					
001979					
001980					
001981					
001982					
001983					
001984					
001985					
001986					
001987					
001988					
001989					
001990					
001991					
001992					
001993					
001994					
001995					
001996					
001997					
001998					
001999					
002000					
002001					
002002					
002003					
002004					
002005					
002006					
002007					
002008					

```

002002      MOV     E,C      ;SAVE SMALLER VALUE IN E
002002      MOV     A,C      ;PUT SMALLER VALUE IN A
002003      ANA     A          ;CLEAR CARRY FLAG
002004      RAR          ;A ← 0.5*A
002005      MOV     D,A      ;D ← 0.5*A
002006      POP     PSW      ;RESTORE QUOTIENT TO A
002007      ;
002007      ; QUOTIENT IS NOW IN A AND SMALLER VALUE IS IN E, WITH 0.5*SMALLER
002007      ; VALUE IN D. TEST A TO DETERMINE THE FACTOR THAT THE SMALLER
002007      ; VALUE WILL BE MULTIPLIED BY TO APPROXIMATE THE
002007      ; MAGNITUDE OF THE COMPLEX NUMBER. (FACTORS ARE 1.5, 2, 2.5,
002007      ; 3, ..., 9, 9.5). THIS DETERMINATION IS MADE BY COMPARING
002007      ; QUOTIENT WITH 8*TAN(ARCCOS 1/(C+0.25)). IF QUOTIENT
002007      ; > 8*TAN(ARCCOS 1/(C+0.25)), THE SMALLER VALUE IS AGAIN
002007      ; SUCCESSIVELY ADDED TO ITSELF AND QUOTIENT IS COMPARED
002007      ; WITH 8*TAN(ARCCOS 1/(C+1)+0.25)). IF 8*TAN(ARCCOS 1/(C+0.25)) <
002007      ; QUOTIENT < 8*TAN(ARCCOS 1/(C+0.25)) THEN 0.5*SMALLER
002007      ; VALUE IS ADDED TO THE SUCCESSIVE ADDITION SUM AND THAT RESULTING
002007      ; VALUE IS RETURNED AS THE MAGNITUDE. IF QUOTIENT < 8*TAN(ARCCOS 1/(C+0.25))
002007      ; THE SUCCESSIVE ADDITION VALUE UP TO THAT POINT IS OUTPUT
002007      ; AS THE MAGNITUDE.
002007      ;
002010      CPI     11.      ; SHOULD MAG BE > 1.5*E?
002010      JF      S360     ; IF SO, SKIP.
002012      MOV     A,E      ; A=E
002015      ADD     D          ; A=1.5E
002016      MOV     C,A      ; STORE MAGNITUDE
002017      JMP     S460     ; SAVE QUOTIENT
002020      MOV     B,A      ;
002023      MOV     A,E      ;
002024      ADD     E          ;
002025      MOV     C,A      ; C=2E
002026      MOV     A,B      ; RESTORE QUOTIENT
002027      CPI     20.      ; SHOULD MAG BE =3?
002030      JF      S370     ;
002032      CPI     16.      ; SHOULD MAG BE =2.5E?
002035      JM      S460     ; IF NOT, STORE MAGNITUDE
002037
002002      131
002003      171
002004      247
002005      037
002006      127
002007      361
002010      376      013
002012      362      023      004
002015      173
002016      202
002017      117
002020      303      320      004
002023      107
002024      173
002025      203
002026      117
002027      170
002030      376      024
002032      362      053      004
002035      376      020

```

Program C(1) (continued)

```

002037 372 320 004 JZ S460
002042 312 320 004 MOV A,C
002045 171 ADD D
002046 202 MOV C,A
002047 117 JMP S460
002050 303 004 S370:
002053 171 ADD E
002054 203 MOV C,A
002055 117 MOV A,B
002056 170 CPI 29
002057 376 035 JP S380
002061 362 102 004 CPI 25
002064 376 031 JM S460
002066 372 320 004 JZ S460
002071 312 320 004 MOV A,C
002074 171 ADD D
002075 202 MOV C,A
002076 117 JMP S460
002077 303 004 S380:
002102 171 ADD E
002103 203 MOV C,A
002104 117 MOV A,B
002105 170 CPI 37
002106 376 045 JP S390
002110 362 131 004 CPI 33
002113 376 041 JM S460
002115 372 320 004 JZ S460
002120 312 320 004 MOV A,C
002123 171

```

; C=2.5E
; C=3E
; SHOULD MAG BE > 3.5?
; SHOULD MAG BE = 3.5?
; C=4E
; SHOULD MAG BE > 4.5?
; SHOULD MAG BE = 4.5?

Program C(1) (continued)

002124	202				MOV	C, A	
002125	117				JMP	S460	
002126	303	320	004		MOV	A, C	
002131	171				ADD	E	
002132	203				MOV	C, A	IC=5E
002133	117				MOV	A, B	
002134	170				CPI	45	; SHOULD MAG BE > 5.5?
002135	376	055			JF	S400	
002137	362	160	004		CPI	41	; SHOULD MAG BE = 5.5?
002142	376	051			JM	S460	
002144	372	320	004		JZ	S460	
002147	312	320	004		MOV	A, C	
002152	171				ADD	D	
002153	202				MOV	C, A	
002154	117				JMP	S460	
002155	303	320	004		MOV	A, C	
002160	171				ADD	E	
002161	203				MOV	C, A	IC=6E
002162	117				MOV	A, B	
002163	170				CPI	53	; SHOULD MAG BE > 4.5?
002164	376	065			JF	S410	
002166	362	207	004		CPI	42	; SHOULD MAG BE = 4.5?
002171	376	061			JM	S460	
002173	372	320	004		JZ	S460	
002176	312	320	004		MOV	A, C	
002201	171				ADD	D	
002202	202				MOV	C, A	
002203	117				JMP	S460	

Program C(1) (continued)

002207	004	0410:	MOV	A,C	
002207	171		ADD	L	
002210	203		MOV	C,A	;C=7E
002211	117		MOV	A,B	
002212	170		CFI	61	; SHOULD MAG BE > 7.5?
002213	376	075	JP	S430	
002215	362	004	CFI	57	; SHOULD MAG BE = 7.5?
002220	376	071	JM	S460	
002222	372	004	JZ	S460	
002225	312	004	MOV	A,C	
002230	171		ADD	D	
002231	202		MOV	C,A	
002232	117		JMP	S460	
002233	303	004	MOV	A,C	
002236	171		ADD	E	
002237	203		MOV	C,A	;C=8E
002240	117		MOV	A,B	
002241	170		CFI	70	; SHOULD MAG BE > 8.5E?
002242	376	106	JP	S440	
002244	362	004	CFI	66	; SHOULD MAG BE = 8.5E?
002247	376	102	JM	S460	
002251	372	004	JZ	S460	
002254	312	004	MOV	A,C	
002257	171		ADD	D	
002260	202		MOV	C,A	
002261	117		JMP	S460	
002262	303	004	MOV	A,C	
002265	171		ADD	L	
002266	203				

Program C(1) (continued)

```

002267      MOV     C,A      ;C=9E
002267      MOV     A,B
002270      CPI     76      ;SHOULD MAG BE = LARGER VAL?
002271      JP      $450
002273      CPI     74      ;SHOULD MAG BE = 2.5E?
002276      JM      $460
002300      JZ      $460
002303      MOV     A,C
002306      ADD     D
002307      MOV     C,A
002310      JMP     $460
002311      LHL     LARGER
002314      MOV     C,L      ;HL <= LARGER VALUE (H <= 0)
002317      LHL     MAGS
002317      MOV     M,C      ;ADDRESS IN MAGS
002320      RET
002324      MAGS:  DS     2
002325      LARGER: DS     2
002327      MTUDE:  DS     16
002331      K:    DS     1
002351      M2:    DS     1
002352      I3:    DS     1
002353      ; THE NEGATIVE NUMBERS IN THIS TABLE ARE MEANT TO BE 1'S
002354      ; COMPLEMENTED IN THE MULCON SUBROUTINE. THAT IS, THE NUMBER --2
002354      ; IN THE TABLE, WHICH IS ASSEMBLED TO 1111110 IN BINARY, WILL
002354      ; BE COMPLEMENTED IN THE PROGRAM TO YIELD 0000001. THUS, --2 IN
002354      ; TABLE WILL REALLY BE INTERPRETED AS --1 BY THE PROGRAM.
002354      TABLE: DB     0,0
002354      DB     --2,0,--3,--6,2,4
002356      DB
002357      DB
002360      DB
002361      DB
002362      DB
002363      DB
002364      DB
002365      DB
002365      DB     --2,5,1,4,--5,--6

```

Program C(1) (continued)

```

002367 004
002370 376
002371 372
002372 376
002373 000
002374 376
002375 000
002376 000
002377 000
002400 001
002401 002
002402 004
002403 000
002404 375
002405 005
002406 376
002407 000
002410 376
002411 004
002412 376
002413 005
002414 376
002415 000
002416 376
002420 000
002424 000
002426 000
002430 000
002432 000
002434 000
002436 000
002440 000
002502 000

DB      -2, 3, -2, 0, 3, 0
DB      1, 2, 4, 0, -3, 5
DB      -2, 3, -2, 4, -2, 5
DB      -2, 0
PREV:   DS      2
SUM:    DS      4
TEMP:   DS      2
DJADDR: DS      2
DIADDR: DS      2
TKADDR: DS      2
DJVAL:  DS      2
DIVAL:  DS      2
DATA:   DS      34
END

```

Program C(1) (continued)